DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 293 075 CG 020 723

AUTHOR Noble, Betty Scott
TITLE Children of Divorce: A Correlational Study of Understanding of Divorce, Attribution Style, and Classroom Behavior.
PUB DATE 85
NOTE 120p.
PUB TYPE Reports - Research/Technical (143)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Adjustment (to Environment); Attribution Theory; *Divorce; Family Structure; Intermediate Grades; *Locus of Control; *Preadolescents; *Student Behavior

ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationship between children's understanding of their parents' divorce, attribution style, and classroom behavior. Fifty fourth and fifth grade children of divorce completed questionnaires concerning their understanding of divorce and attribution style, while teachers completed a rating of classroom behavior. Measures of classroom behavior and attribution style were also obtained for children from intact families. The results revealed no significant relationship between children's understanding of divorce and classroom behavior. A significant relationship was found between external locus of control and more classroom behavior problems. The significant relationship found between understanding of divorce and attribution style indicated that an internal locus of control accompanied a more adjusted understanding of divorce. A trend toward a relationship between internality and fewer classroom problem behaviors and between externality and fewer classroom competent behaviors also emerged. Relationships between attribution style and classroom behavior and between understanding of divorce and attribution style were stronger with increased separation time. No significant differences were found between the classroom behavior of children from divorced and intact families, and few differences emerged in attribution style between the two groups. (Author/NB)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED293075

CG 020723

Children of Divorce: A Correlational Study of Understanding of Divorce, Attribution Style, and Classroom Behavior

[Betty Scott Noble]

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☑ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Betty Scott Noble
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Running head: Children of Divorce: A Correlational Study

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Children's Understanding of Divorce, Attribution Style and Classroom Behavior

Dr. Betty S. Noble

Cherokee Mental Health Center

Morristown, Tennessee

Much of the previous divorce research has been biased by the divorce myth, the assumption that divorce necessarily hurts the individuals involved. This bias has been evident in the model used in much of the children of divorce research, which examines the effect of type of home (divorced, "normal" intact, "conflict-ridden" intact) on the social competence of children. However, the model used in this children of divorce research was based on a family stress model proposed by Peterson, Leigh, and Day (1984), which emphasizes the individual's definition of the divorce and crisis meeting resources as mediating variables which affect the outcome for the child.

This study draws from pertinent research findings in three areas: stressful life events, the reaction of children to divorce, and attribution style. Stressful life events have been associated with school adjustment problems in elementary aged children (Sterling, Cowen, Weissberg, and Boike, 1985), and divorce has been found to be the second most stressful event a child experiences, exceeded only by the death of parents (Coddington, 1972). In terms of reaction to divorce, Wallerstein and Kelly (1976) reported that 50% of their sample exhibited problems in school, at

the time of separation, and 25% - 36% continued to have problems one year after separation. In addition Wallerstein & Kelly (1980) found that 5 years after separation children's failure to understand the divorce was one factor related to negative adjustment in children. With regard to attribution style, locus of control has been found to be one of the factors related to positive adjustment in children of divorce (Kurdek, Blisk, and Siesky, 1981). These research findings have provided a basis for this study. The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between children's understanding of their parents' divorce, attribution style, and classroom behavior.

Fifty 4th and 5th grade children of divorce completed questionnaires concerning understanding of divorce and attribution style, while teachers completed a rating of classroom behavior. Measures of classroom behavior and attribution style were also obtained for children from intact families.

No significant relationship between childrens' understanding of divorce and classroom behavior was found, although there was a trend toward a more maladjusted understanding of divorce accompanying more behavior problems and fewer competencies. A significant relationship between external locus of control and more classroom behavior problems was found. Also the significant relationship between understanding of divorce and attribution style indicated that an internal locus of control accompanied a more adjusted understanding of divorce. A trend toward a relationship between internality and fewer classroom problem behaviors and between externality and fewer classroom competent behaviors also emerged.

When the results were analyzed according to separation time, the relationships between attribution style and classroom behavior and understanding of divorce and attribution style were stronger with increased

separation time. Findings suggested a pattern of sex differences in the relationship between understanding of divorce and classroom behavior, with boys having more significant relationships involving mother blame and girls having more significant relationships involving hopes of reconciliation. No significant differences were found between the classroom behavior of children from divorced and intact families, and few differences emerged in attribution style between the two groups.

The model used in this research investigated the effect of intervening variables on the outcome of divorce in children. The strong relationship between locus of control and understanding of divorce suggests that internal locus of control may be a key mediating variable that influences the manner in which a child understands and reacts to parental divorce. This finding has definite implications for school psychologists working with children of divorce in the schools.

References

Coddington, R.D. (1972). The Significance of Life Events as Etiological Factors as Etiological Factors in the Diseases of Children - II A Study of a Normal Population. Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 16, 205-213.

Kurdek, L.A., Blisk, D., and Siesky, A. (1981). Correlates of Children's Long Term Adjustment to their Parents' Divorce. Developmental Psychology, 17 (5), 565-579.

Sterling, S., Cowen, E.L., Weissberg, R.P., Lotyczewski, B.S., and Boike, M. (1985). Recent Stressful Life Events and Young Children's School Adjustment. American Journal of Community Psychology, 13 (1), 81-89.

Wallerstein, J.S., and Kelly, J.B. (1976). The Effects of Parental Divorce: Experiences of the Child in Later Latency. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 40 (2), 256-267.

Wallerstein, J.S., and Kelly J.B. (1980). Surviving the Breakup: How Children and Parents Cope with Divorce. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Introduction

Divorce statistics substantiate the growing numbers of children who experience the divorce of their parents. Forty percent of the current marriages of young adults will end in divorce (Drake and Shellenberger, 1981). Fifty percent of all divorces involve children (Goldman and King, 1985). Each year one and one-half million children under eighteen are involved in marital dissolution. One out of every five children in an average classroom lives in a single parent home (Drake and Shellenberger, 1981). Additional research suggests that a projected one-third of the children eighteen years of age in 1990 will have lived with a divorce parent (Allers, 1982). Clearly, parental divorce affects an overwhelming number of children who experience the stress of family disruption.

However, in spite of the large number of children affected by parental divorce, and the preponderance of divorce research undertaken in the 1970's, prediction concerning the impact of divorce on children has moved rather slowly. In 1976, the American Bar Association called for more empirical studies that would aid courts in representing the rights and needs of children (Bernard and Nesbitt, 1981). Since that time more studies on the impact of divorce on children have been undertaken, but numerous problems are apparent in these investigations.

Bernard and Nesbitt (1981) address some of these problems in their discussion of predominant patterns of divorce research. One of the major problems in divorce research has been an experimenter

bias toward divorce. Bernard and Nesbitt (1981) term this pervasive bias "the divorce myth". This myth suggests that "divorce has inordinate powers to hurt people, regardless of the mental health and maturity of the adults and children involved". As a result, many studies have stressed the negative results of divorce and imply some generalized negative effects of divorce on children, just as the previously cited statistics on divorce have dispelled the marriage myth, which promised life happily ever after.

Instead of assuming the negative effects implied by the divorce myth, Bernard and Nesbitt (1981) advocate labeling divorce "an unreliable predictor of mental illness, achievement, delinquency, and emotional predisposition" and challenge therapists, parents and educators to "regard divorce as a life experience which has exposed children to certain challenges and demands without predetermining the emotional valence of the event" (p. 40). Just as adults frequently mention the positive growth experienced as a result of divorce, perhaps even children experience such positive growth. However, "the question of the possible positive effects of divorce on children has barely been scratched" (Muir, 1977, p.2), and until more research is designed to control for divorce myth bias and to consider any potential positive effects of divorce for children, conclusive statements cannot be offered concerning the impact of divorce on children (Bernard and Nesbitt, 1981). Perhaps, the most reasonable summary statement concerning the effects of divorce on children is that offered by Levitin (1979):

> It is clear that divorce is a time of crisis for children ... (However) the effects of that crisis may be both positive and negative; sometimes mild and sometimes severe; and have different short- and long-term consequences for different children and their families (p. 23).

Future research needs to carefully examine the pervasive influence of the divorce myth and investigate the whole gamut of possible effects suggested by Levitin.

In order to consider the wide range of possible effects of divorce, Levitin (1979) and Kurdek (1982) have called for conceptual revisions in future divorce research, and have addressed the need for a more cohesive conceptual framework or schema to integrate the various perspectives and findings of research on the effects of divorce on children. Peterson, Leigh and Day (1984) have developed just such a conceptual framework in a recent article entitled "Family Stress Theory and the Impact of Divorce on Children". Instead of the model used in much of the present divorce research, which examines the effect of a family status variable - type of home (divorced, normal intact, conflict ridden intact) on the social competence of children,

---

Insert Figure 1 about here

Peterson et al., (1984) propose an alternate model which integrates

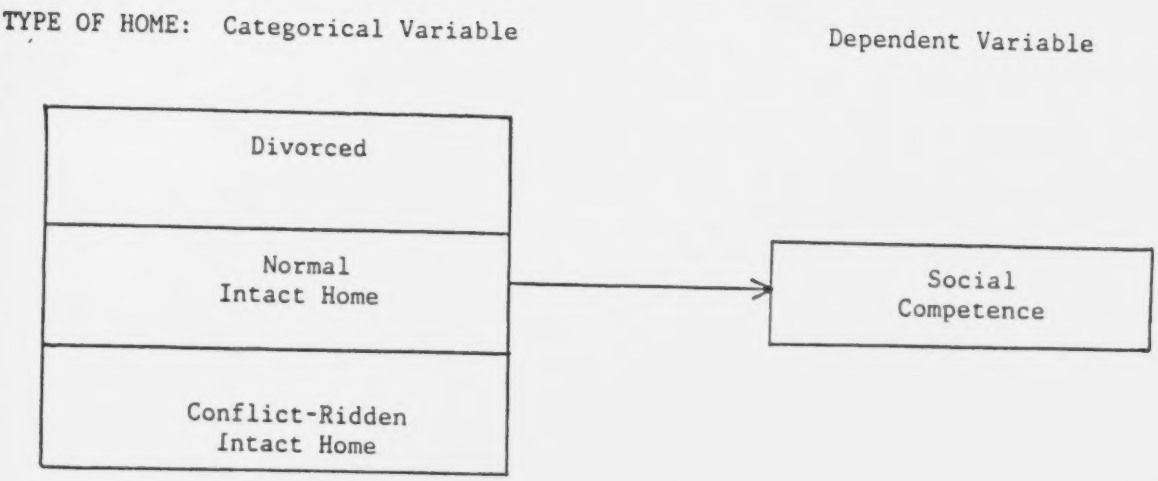


FIGURE 1 The Model Previously Used in Most of the Children of Divorce Research: The Effect of a Categorical Divorce Variable (Type of Home) on Children's Social Competence

concepts from family stress theory and divorce literature to understand the impact of divorce on children. The model emphasizes that both individual and relationship variables must be considered, and focuses on variations in the "definition of the situation" assigned to the crisis of divorce by children and custodial parents.

The concept "definition of the situation" is defined as "the degree of severity assigned to a stressor by family members (children and the custodial parent) that determines their ability to cope with a crisis" (Peterson et al., 1984), p. 1). The basic model, as proposed by family stress theorists, is that "the definition of the situation interacts with the stressor event and the family members' crisis meeting resources to produce a crisis situation" (Peterson et al., 1984, p. 1). As proposed by Peterson et al., the disengagement of the non-custodial parent is viewed as the potential stressor (principal independent variable) which interacts with a second variable, the severity of the crisis definition, and results in the social competence of the child (the dependent variable).

Insert Figure 2 about here

With regard to the child, certain variables called "crisis meeting resources" or "vulnerabilities to stress" affect the severity of the child's crisis definition. Peterson et al. list the following variables or "crisis meeting resources" as influencing the

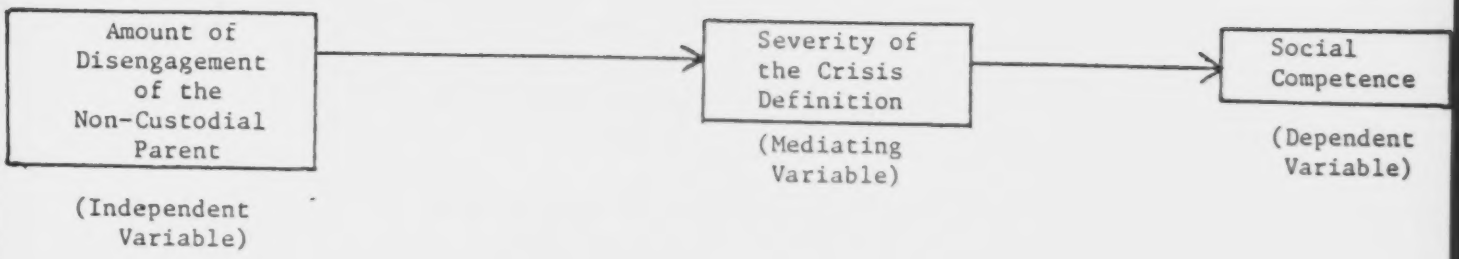


FIGURE 2 The Model Proposed by Peterson et al., 1984, to Study the Effects of Divorce on Children

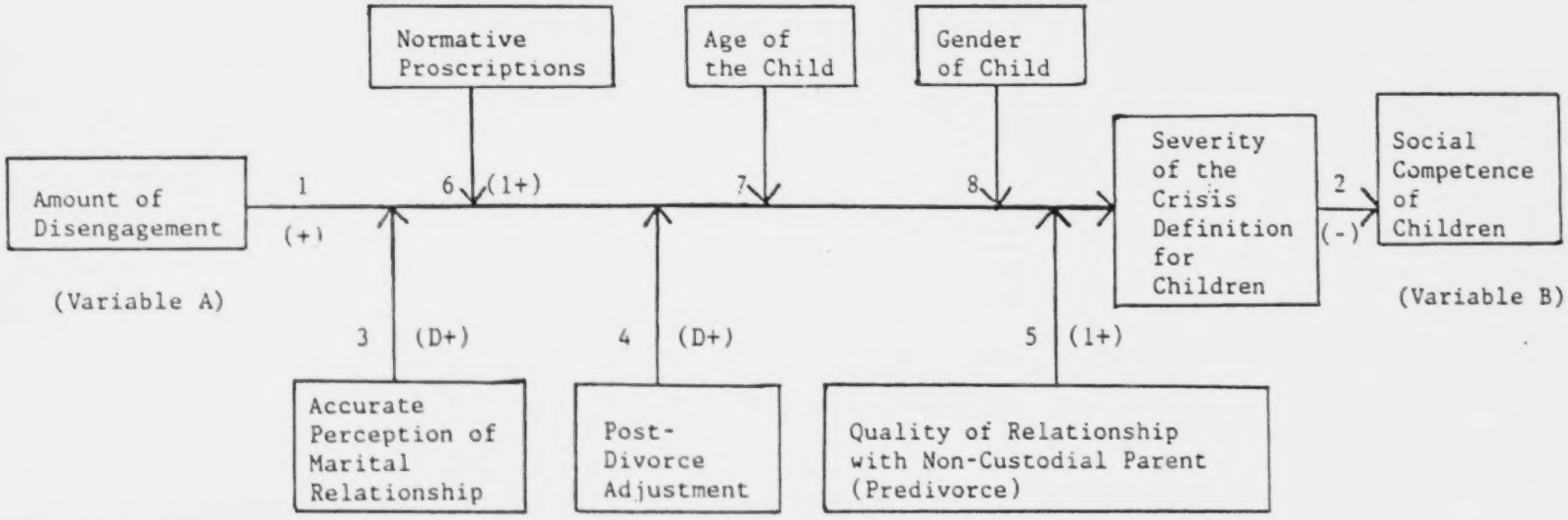
severity of the child's crisis definition: (a) the child's perception of the marriage relationships, (b) the post-divorce adjustment of the parents, (c) the quality of the child's relationship with non-custodial parent prior to the divorce, (d) the prevailing subcultural norms about divorce (normative proscription), (3) the age of the child, and (f) the gender of the child.

Insert Figure 3 about here

These variables are said to "have a contingent effect which increases or decreases the relationship between the amount of disengagement ... of the non-custodial parent and the severity of the crisis definition for the child" (Peterson et al., 1984, p. 7).

In summary, Peterson et al. (1984) have proposed an alternate model, based on the Hill (1958) family stress theory, for studying the effects of divorce on children. Their model conceptualizes divorce as a stressful even and focuses on the "definition of the situation" assigned to the divorce. It is the "definition of the situation", defined as the degree of severity assigned to the divorce by the family member, that determines one's ability to cope with a divorce crisis. In this model, the individual coping resources of the child, as well as his/her capacity for dealing with stress, not just a family status variable (divorce vs. intact), are factors which mediate the child's adjustment to divorce.

In addition to the definition of the divorce situation



(+) Positive Relationship
(-) Negative Relationship
D+ As this contingent variable increases, it decreases the positive relationship between variables A and B.
1+ As this contingent variable decreases, it decreases the positive relationship between variables A and B.

FIGURE 3 Variables (Crisis Meeting Resources) that Affect the Severity of the Crisis Definition for the Child

(Peterson et al., 1984), other individual coping resources or capacities for dealing with stress may mediate one's response to divorce. Kurdek (1981) refers to the significance of the child's understanding of the divorce, as well as other coping resources, that may mediate children's reaction to divorce. He asserts that adjustment may be linked to

> specific developmental changes in children's ability to appraise the divorce situation, to make sense out of the complex sequence of disruptive events, to infer the motives and feelings of parents, to assess accurately their own control role in the divorce decision, and to experience some degree of control over their outcomes (p. 892).

Kurdek (1981) has challenged researchers to adopt a "cognitive-developmental perspective on children's divorce adjustment ... (to determine) individual cognitive factors that modulate children's perceptions of divorce as a life stress" (p. 892).

In response to the family stress model developed by Peterson et al., (1984) to investigate the impact of divorce on children and Kurdek's challenge to consider the role of individual cognitive factors in the adjustment of children to divorce, the present study has been developed. The purpose of the present study is to investigate the influence of locus of control and causal attribution (two developmental cognitive variables) as crisis meeting resources, which, along with the child's understanding of the divorce,

influence the severity of the crisis definition, and hence, mediate the child's reaction to the stressor event of divorce. The model of the present study, which relies heavily on the model proposed by Peterson et al. (1984) and Krudek (1981) is presented in Figure 4.

Insert Figure 4 about here

Review of the Literature

The review of the literature will examine research with COD in the areas of classroom behavior, understanding of the divorce, and locus of control/causal attribution. Because divorce is being conceptualized as a stressor event, the impact of which is mediated by resources such as understanding of the divorce, locus of control and causal attribution, introductory references may be made to studies concerning stress and its relationship to classroom behavior, understanding of a stressor event, locus of control, and causal attribution.

Divorce as a Stressful Life Event

The conceptualization of divorce as a stressful event in the lives of children has been supported by numerous researchers. Family troubles and loss have been identified as two of the seven types of stressful events which account for most of the variance in children's life stress events (Sandler and Ramsay, 1980). Hodges, Tierny and Buchsbaum (in press) report that "divorce has been identified as one of the stressful life events with a high

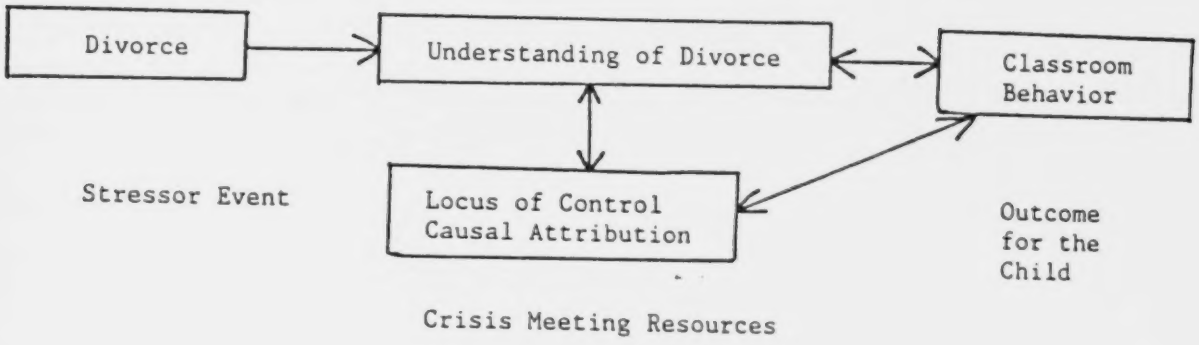


FIGURE 4 The Model Used in the Present Study to Investigate the Effects of Divorce on Children

likelihood of ... impact on the child" (p. 611). In fact, a study by Coddington (1972) concluded that of the thirty-five life change events requiring social readjustment in elementary school children, the effects of separation an divorce were second only to parental death, in terms of the amount of readjustment required. Clearly research documents divorce as one of the most stressful evens in the lives of children.

COD and Classroom Behavior

Several studies had found a positive relationship between the number of stressful life events and maladaptive classroom behavior in children (Gerstein, Langner, Eisenberg and Rozek, 1974; Heisel, Ream, Raitz, Ruppaport and Coddington, 1973; Sandler and Block, 1979; Sandler and Ramsay, 1980). More recent research has also documented the relationship between stressful life events and classroom behavior (Stolberg and Bush, in press, and Sterling, Cowen, Weissberg, Lotyczewski and Boike, 1985). Stolberg and Bush (in press), in a study examining the relationship between children's recent life change events and behavior, reported the following: (a) the higher the number of life change events, the lower the social competence of the child, (b) children experiencing fewer life change events were rated as being more socially competent, (c) older children experienced fewer life change events, (d) more life change events predicted externalizing psychopathology in younger children (e) higher frequency of life change events was associated with greater externalizing psychopathology and fewer prosocial skills.

In addition, Sterling et al. (1985), found that in first through fourth-grade children stressful life events were found to be associated with the presence of more serious school adjustment problems and fewer competencies. Children who experienced three or more stressful life events exhibited significantly more serious problems and fewer competencies.

In addition to these studies documenting the relationship between stressful life events and classroom behavior, much research has considered the classroom behavior of COD. These studies have compared the classroom behavior of children from intact and divorced families, as well as the classroom behavior of children experiencing the two most stressful life events, loss from death and divorce. Other studies have investigated the classroom behavior of COD without a comparison group.

Several studies have compared the classroom behavior and general school behavior of elementary children from intact and divorced families (Hammond, 1979; Evans and Need, 1980; Guidubaldi, Perry, Cleminshaw and McLoughlin, 1983) and Stolberg and Anker, 1983). Hammond (1979) found that teachers rated boys of divorced families significantly higher than boys from intact families on the problem behaviors of acting out and distractibility, using the Walker Behavior Problem Checklist; whereas no significant differences were found for girls from intact and divorced families. In addition, Evans and Neel (1980) found that elementary children from one parent families had more tardies, absences, truancies and

discipline referrals than children from two parent families. Similarly, Guidubaldi et al. (1983) found significant differences between first, third and fifth grade children from intact and divorced families on a variety of social-emotional-behavioral measures. Children from intact families performed better than COD on 13/15 Hahnemann classroom behavior ratings and on the communication, daily living, and social scales of the Vineland Teacher Questionnaire. Children from intact families were absent less frequently, had higher peer popularity ratings from parents and teachers, and exhibited more internal locus of control. In addition, Stolberg and Anker (1983) compared the classroom behavior of children from intact and divorced families and found the COD exhibited lower prosocial related behaviors, more problems in unusual behavior and interpersonal relations, and perceived the environment as less purposefully organized in activity. In summary, it appears that these findings generally agree that differences exist in the classroom behavior of children from intact and divorced families.

In addition to children from intact families, the classroom behavior of COD has been compared to the behavior of children experiencing another kind of loss, the death of a parent. Felner, Stolberg and Cowen (1975) found that elementary age children from suburban-urban areas with histories of parental death were significantly more anxious, depressed and withdrawn, whereas COD had significantly more aggression and acting out problems. A

replication of the study with children from rural areas yielded similar findings (Felner, Farber, Ginter, Boike and Cowen, 1980). COD were less able to cope with rules (Felner, Farber, Ginter, Boike and Cowen, 1981) and were judged to have fewer competencies overall, especially with frustration tolerance and peer sociability, than children experiencing death (Felner et al., 1980). This research indicates that children experiencing parental death and divorce exhibit different classroom behavior patterns.

While the previously cited studies indicate that as a group there are significant differences in the classroom behavior of COD when compared with other groups, not all COD exhibit problems in classroom behavior. Some research has looked at the number of COD experiencing problems in the classroom. Kelly and Wallerstein (1976) found that teachers noted significant behavioral changes at school, at the time of separation, in approximately one-half of the children ages seven and eight from divorced families. Similarly, in the nine and ten year old sample, teachers observed a noticeable decline in school performance, accompanied by a deterioration in peer relationships, in half of the children at the time of separation. At the time of the one-year follow up, one-fourth of the nine and ten year old children continued to experience frequent school and peer difficulties (Wallerstein and Kelly, 1976). In another study of the classroom behavior of COD, parents reported that 36% of the children in the sample experienced difficulty in school or behavior (Kurdek and Siesky, 1979).

In summary, results from these studies have reported varying percentages of COD who experience school related problems and have found differences in the classroom behavior of COD, children from intact families, and children experiencing death. Although more extensive and controlled research is needed before conclusive statements can be made regarding the classroom behaviors of COD, the studies reviewed tend to suggest a continuum of adjustment, with some children experiencing great adjustment problems while others seem to experience little difficulty in adjustment. Only now is research beginning to investigate variable which may account for these differences and mediate divorce adjustment in COD.

Children's Understanding of Parental Divorce

One variable which has been proposed as mediating divorce adjustment is the child's understanding of the divorce. Findings in the stress literature strongly support the view that the effects of stressful life events are moderated by one's cognitive appraisal of the event (Sterling et al., 1985) and one's cognitive appraisal influences one's response to a particular event (Lazarus and Launier, 1978, and Rutter, 1981). Peterson et al. (1984) apply this concept to divorce adjustment, with their emphasis on the individual definitions of the family situation which may moderate the impact of divorce on children.

This area, the child's understanding of the divorce, has received little attention until recently. Findings from studies by Kurdek and Siesky (1979, 1980b) and Kurdek, Blisk and Siesky (1981)

provide information related to the child's understanding of divorce. The first two studies, Kurdek and Siesky (1979, 1980b), examine the relationship between the child's understanding of divorce and the manner in which parents tell the children about the divorce. Results of the Kurdek and Siesky (1979) study revealed that : (a) parents usually shared in telling the children of the decision to divorce - but if not, the mother more frequently told, (b) younger children were often given no explanation of the departure of the non-custodial parent, (c) children varied widely in their reaction to the news of the divorce.

The second study, Kurdek and Siesky (1980b), investigated the relationships among several variables: the nature of the parent's explanation, the child's understanding of the divorce, hopes for reconciliation, and favorable-unfavorable adjustment patterns. Findings indicated that the nature of the parental explanation was significantly related to the child's understanding of the divorce, the child's reason for parents not living together, and child's hopes for reconciliation. Also the child's understanding of the divorce was significantly related to favorable-unfavorable adjustment patterns. Specific findings were that (a) children given descriptive explanations (no indication of which parent decided) were more likely to understand the divorce as marriage dissolution or in child-oriented terms (terms relevant to themselves) and to think that parents did not live together because of incompatibility, (b) children given mutual explanations (both parents decided)

understood divorce as psychological separation and saw incompatibility as a major reason that parents did not live together, (c) children given one-sided explanations (one parent decided) understood divorce as physical and psychological separation and saw loss of love as the major reason for separation, (d) children given descriptive explanations tended to harbor the most hope of reunion. In addition, children exhibiting a favorable adjustment pattern were given a mutual or one-sided explanation and understood the divorce as psychological separation, while children with an unfavorable adjustment pattern were given a descriptive explanation and understood the divorce in child-oriented terms.

The third study examined the correlates of the child's long term adjustment to parental divorce (Kurdek, Blisk and Siesky, 1981). Findings with regard to the child's understanding of the divorce revealed that four and six years after separation, children who were perceived as having made a positive adjustment defined divorce in terms of psychological-emotional separation, were provided with a two-sided explanation of divorce, and perceived the parents' separation as final. In summary, the findings of the studies by Kurdek and Siesky (1979 and 1980b) and Kurdek, Blisk and Siesky (1981) strongly suggest a definite relationship between the manner in which the divorce is explained to the child and the child's understanding of and adjustment to parental divorce.

In addition to the influence of the manner in which the divorce is explained to the child, other factors contribute to the child's

understanding of parental divorce. Stolberg and Kiluk (in press) assert that the child's appraisal of the divorce (i.e., perception of the event as good or bad), and the subsequent evaluation of the divorce process determines the extent to which the event is experienced as stressful. Therefore, the child's perceived desirability or undesirability of the divorce and the subsequent environmental changes are crucial in understanding the way in which the child experiences the stressfulness of such life events. The perception of the desirability of an event may be related to the degree of cognitive flexibility and adaptability, in that perceiving an event as positive may reflect a cognitive adaptability to change and a willingness to meet the demands of new circumstances. Similarly, a negative evaluation may reflect a lack of cognitive adaptability and an unwillingness to confront new situations (Stolberg and Kiluk, in press). Clearly, one's adjustment to separation and divorce is related to one's understanding of or perception of the event; therefore, it seems likely that a child's understanding of the divorce is related to the perception of the divorce as desirable or undesirable, the degree of cognitive flexibility and adaptability, and the individual coping style of the child (Stolberg and Kiluk, in press).

As pointed out by Stolberg and Kiluk (in press), the child's understanding or definition of the divorce is related to his/her cognitive level, which implies a developmental perspective. Therefore, it is likely that the child's individual definition of

the divorce is related to cognitive level and age-specific reactions to divorce. Peterson et al. (1984) report that investigations have identified an approximate age range of three to nine years as the most vulnerable time for children to experience parental divorce. It seems that children below the age of three have limited awareness of stressful family events and are less affected by parental divorce, while adolescents seem more capable of accurately perceiving the family situation. However, children between the ages of three and nine years often blame themselves for parental divorce, define disengagement severely, and seem to have fewer crisis meeting resources.

The reference to cognitive structures calls to mind Piaget's cognitive-developmental theory of children's intelligence. Allen (1983) presents Piaget's theory of cognitive development in terms of its implications for how children handle crises. In referring to the elementary age child, who is theoretically in the concrete operational stage of cognitive development, his/her understanding of divorce relates to the child's notions of time, relations, cause and effect, and social justice. The child can more fully grasp explanations of why events occur, can judge motives over consequences, can consider more than one dimension of a problem, as well as the viewpoints of others. His/Her understanding of divorce may be expressed in words such as these: "Daddy doesn't want to leave me, but is happier living without mommy". S/He is concerned with the effects of loss on her mother, father, and siblings, as

well as self (p. 5).

The relationship of one's level of cognitive development to age-specific reactions to divorce has also been examined by Longfellow. Using the social-cognitive development framework and levels of interpersonal reasoning developed by Selman (1971, 1974), Longfellow (1979) has integrated the age-specific findings of Wallerstein and Kelly with Selman's levels of social reasoning. A basic tenant of Selman's social-cognitive developmental theory is that children themselves are active constructors of the world they experience, and their reasoning about the social and physical world undergoes change. Longfellow (1979) hypothesizes that "different levels of social understanding are related to different perceptions of what is happening and consequently to different reactions to the divorce" (p. 299). Therefore, Longfellow asserts that the social-cognitive developmental perspective is crucial to the study of children's reactions to divorce.

Other recent research investigated the relationship of the child's level of cognitive development and reaction to divorce in children (Neal, 1983). After assessing the child's cognitive-developmental level (Piaget) and level of interpersonal perspective taking, Neal (1983) found four levels of understanding of parental divorce which parallel four developmental periods - preschoolers (ages three through six), early elementary (ages five through eight), older elementary (ages nine through twelve), and early adolescents (ages twelve through fifteen). He described the ways in

which children in each of these age groups make sense of their parents' divorces.

Perhaps the most thorough investigation of children's understanding of parental divorce is the recent work by Kurdek (in press) entitled, "Children's Reasoning about Parental Divorce". Kurdek argues for the social-cognitive developmental perceptive, established by Longfellow (1979), and considers the effect of social cognitive development on the adjustment of children to divorce. Kurdek reviews relevant research and integrates findings into an age specific (infant, pre-school, younger and older school age, and adolescent) explanation of children's views of parental divorce.

In addition to research on cognitive development and the child's understanding of divorce, recent research has focused on the relationship between the child's understanding of the divorce and behavior at home and school (Kurdek and Berg, 1983; Krantz, Clark, Pruyn and Usher, 1985). Kurdek and Berg (1983) have examined the relationship between the child's understanding of the divorce and behavioral adjustment at home and school. The results revealed a moderately positive relationship between the child's understanding of the divorce and his/her behavior, as rated by parents and teachers. These results suggest that children experiencing difficulty in understanding the divorce were also likely to experience adjustment problems both at home and in school. More recently Krantz et al. (1985) tested the hypothesis that coping with the stress of divorce is associated with children's cognitive

appraisal of the divorce and of their resources for coping with the stressor. Their research with eight through twelve year old boys and girls found that for boys (a) appraisals of divorce situations was related to behavior in the home, but not in school; (b) their appraisals of coping options were related to personal adjustment in the home and school, but not to academic performance; (c) in girls the relationships between cognitive and psychosocial adjustment were less consistent than for boys, with only a few of the relationships being significant. These findings provide partial support for the prediction that coping is related to appraisals of stressful events and one's resources for coping with such events.

After reviewing the literature concerning the child's understanding of divorce, several conclusions can be drawn: (a) a relationship exists between the manner in which divorce is explained to the child and his/her understanding of the divorce, (b) the child's understanding of the divorce is related to his/her level of cognitive development, and (c) a trend toward a relationship between the child's understanding of the divorce and behavior, particularly among boys, is suggested by very recent studies. These conclusions are supported by the following statement made by Krantz, Clark, Pruyn and Usher (1985):

> children's post divorce functioning is mediated by their appraisal of the separation or divorce ... and that inferences made by children about separation and divorce are associated with the difficulties in post divorce

functioning (p. 63).

Clearly the contribution of the child's understanding of divorce from a cognitive developmental perspective is a crucial area for future research concerning the child's functioning following divorce.

COD and Attribution Style

The last area to be reviewed is that of attribution style (locus of control and causal attribution) and its relationship to the adjustment of COD. Rotter defines locus of control as the perception of a connection between one's actions and their consequences (Sarason, Johnson and Siegel, 1978). Rotter (1966) further delineates locus of control as internal and external. Internal control represents a person's belief that rewards are contingent upon one's own behavior, whereas external control represents the belief that rewards are controlled by forces outside oneself, and thus may occur independently of one's own actions (Gurin, Gurin, Lao and Beattie, 1969). Although the COD literature has not extensively investigated the concept of locus of control as a variable mediating adjustment, research in the area of stress frequently mentions locus of control as a mediating variable (Mueller, Edwards and Yarvis, 1977).

Rotter claims that life stresses affect individuals differently depending on the degree of their perceived control (Sarason et al., 1978). Lefcourt (1982) concludes that perceived control can moderate the impact of potentially stressful experiences. Studies

of individuals exposed to severe life stresses suggest that internals experience less distress than externals and also achieve better outcomes (Parkes, 1984). In addition, evidence seems to indicate that internals are more likely to use strategies focused on altering the stressful situation, while externals more likely adopt palliative coping strategies (Parkes, 1984).

Whereas most of the previously cited research studied adults' locus of control orientation in regard to stress and coping, some studies have focused on children and their control orientations. In a study of stressful life events and school adjustment in first through fourth grade children, Sterling et al. (1985) found that the effects of stress were moderated by a sense of personal control. Nowicki and Duke (1983) addressed the relationship between stressful life experiences and control orientation and concluded that:

> children work to make sense of their past experiences and to develop a tested style of action, so as to help themselves predict and cope with both the present and the future. To the extent that (children) try to make sense of their stressful ... life experiences, it is conceivable that variables such as critical stressful life events are also related to one's locus of control orientations (p. 36).

In other research with children, Garmezy (1983) has identified internal locus of control as characteristic of children identified as good copers from very stressful environments of poverty and

prejudice. Clearly research on stress has documented locus of control as a mediating coping skill.

Research with COD has yielded several findings concerning locus of control (Guidubaldi et al., 1983; Stolberg and Anker, 1983; Kurdek and Siesky, 1980a; Kurdek and Berg, 1983). Guidubaldi et al. (1983) found that children from intact families exhibited more internal locus of control than COD. In addition, Stolberg and Anker (1983) found that as extent of environmental change increases, children perceive themselves and their parents as being less able to control their world. Specifically, children perceived themselves and their parents as having the least amount of control when the divorce was initiated by the father, and the greatest amount of control when the mother initiated the divorce. Slightly greater perceptions of control were found by the mutually initiated group, as opposed to the father initiated group.

Findings related to locus of control and adjustment were reported in two studies (Kurdek and Siesky, 1980a, and Kurdek and Berg, 1983). Kurdek and Siesky (1980a), in an investigation of variables mediating children's adjustment to divorce, found that age, locus of control, and interpersonal knowledge were the most powerful variables moderating children's adjustment to divorce. Specifically, children with internal locus of control were less likely than children with external locus of control to have adverse reactions regarding acceptance of parents, post-divorce conflicts, emotional responses, and peer relationships. Kurdek and Berg (1983)

also report a finding related to locus of control and adjustment. In a study of social, familial, and individual characteristics related to adjustment, internal locus of control, as well as high interpersonal reasoning, were the individual characteristics significantly related to children's divorce adjustment. Kurdek and Siesky (1980a) refer to the relationships of children's adjustment to divorce and locus of control in these words: "Children who perceive events as being under their control are likely to avoid constructing a view of the divorce and its consequences in which the child views him/herself as a helpless target of external forces" (p. 376). While it seems that some evidence exists for the influence of locus of control on the adjustment of children to divorce, more research is needed to investigate locus of control as a variable mediating children's adjustment to divorce.

The second area of attribution style to be considered is causal attribution. Causal attribution is defined as the explanations people generate for events that occur (Bugental, Whalen and Henker, 1977). Krantz and Rude (1984) offer the following description of the concept of attribution:

> Attribution models suggest that people form beliefs about the cause of events (e.g. I failed because I lack ability). These beliefs vary in the degree to which the cause can be characterized as internal or external to the individual (locus of causality), stable or unstable over time and global versus specific in the range of its

effects. The three dimensions of the causes of events (locus of causality, stability, and globality) are thought to be related to depressive symptoms (p. 193).

In spite of numerous studies which have investigated the concept of causal attribution and its relationship to depression and learned helplessness in adults (Peterson and Seligman, 1984; Rizley, 1978; Peterson, 1983; Depue and Monroe, 1978), little research has considered causal attribution in children.

Several studies by Dweck (Dweck, 1975; Dweck and Bush, 1976; Dweck, Davidson, Nelson and Enna, in press; Dweck and Goetz, 1978) have considered causal attribution and learned helplessness with a particular focus on sex differences. The results of these studies conclude that individuals differ in consistent ways with regard to the causes they assign to outcomes in academic and social situations. These different attribution styles seem to influence how one responds to life events by guiding the selection of coping patterns in situations (Dweck and Goetz, 1978). Sex differences have been found in attribution styles in academic situations (Dweck and Bush, 1976; Dweck et al., in press). Results indicate that

> whereas boys tend to respond with greater efforts when they receive feedback from adults that they are failing, girls tend to give up and attribute their failing to their lack of ability. One of the reasons for girls being more likely to give up seems to lie in the sex differentiated

> pattern of feedback from adults. The (differentiated) pattern seems to ... increase girls' tendency to feel that they cannot succeed whatever they do, whereas boys are given the message that their failure is a consequence of their misbehaving or not trying hard enough and hence ... they could cope if they chose to do so. It has been suggested that the increasing experience of feedback from adults during the school years may make girls more likely to adopt an attributional style of 'learned helplessness', which could ... explain, in part, why depression is more prevalent in women (Rutter, 1981, p. 344).

Dweck's research seems to indicate that sex differences exist with regard to attribution styles in children, and is of particular interest in light of the consistent findings that boys seem to experience more problems in divorce adjustment.

In other research with children, the attribution style questionnaire (Peterson, Semmel, Baeyer, Abramson, Metalsky and Seligman, 1982), developed for use with adults, has been modified for use with children (Seligman, Kaslow, Alloy, Peterson, Tanerbaum and Abramson, 1984). Research with this measure suggests that a certain type of attribution style (internal, stable, global) may be a risk factor for depression (Seligman et al., 1984). In addition, depressed children were found to report a more "depressive" attribution style, exhibited fewer self-control deficits, were rated as more depressed by teachers, and perceived their family

environment to be more distressed (Kaslow, Rehn and Siegel, 1984). These findings concerning attribution style and depression become salient in light of the research by McDermott (1968, 1970) that reported signs of depression prevalent in COD (Emery, 1982).

In spite of the fact that some research has been done with children and causal attribution, no research has considered to concept of causal attribution, as such, in COD. However, the work of Kurdek (in press), Kurdek and Siesky (1980b), Kelly and Berg (1978), and Young (1983) on blame and the understanding of COD, appears to be similar to the concept of causal attribution.

Kurdek (in press) reports that children often construct problematic perceptions about both the nature of the parental divorce and their causal role in the divorce decision. These perceptions include: fears of abandonment by the custodial parent, expectations of peer ridicule and rejection, the beliefs that one has to hold the family together or that improved behavior will result in parental reconciliation, and the blame of oneself or one parent exclusively for the divorce. In addition, Kurdek and Siesky (1980b) found that children who appear to blame themselves for the divorce perceive their parents in a rather negative light. Perhaps the COD research most directly related to causal attribution is the study by Young (1983) on blame. Young examined the relationship between blame attributions and the child's self report of current adjustment and anxiety. Four choices of blame attribution were given: mostly mom's fault, mostly dad's fault, mom and dad have the

same fault for the divorce, or mom and dad are not at fault for the divorce. In a sample of children ages seven through eleven, 82.7% blamed either one or both parents and 17.3% blamed both parents, while 35.7% blamed dad and 9.2% blamed mom. No significant age or sex differences were found with regard to blame style. Children who blamed mom or both parents anticipated greater difficulty in adjustment than those who blamed dad or neither parent. Self-blame was a significant predictor of the child's current anxiety level, with 50% of the children reporting some degree of blame. While it appears that the concept of causal attribution may have direct implications for the study of blame attributions in COD, clearly more research is needed in this unexplored area.

This review of the literature has summarized findings related to the classroom behavior of COD, the child's understanding of the divorce, and the concepts of locus of control and causal attribution, as mediating variables in the child's adjustment to divorce. Whereas the findings previously presented suggest that these concepts may be significant in the investigation of the adjustment of children to divorce, no research has investigated the relationships among these three variables and the school adjustment of children of divorce.

The present study is designed to investigate the effect of locus of control, causal attribution, and the child's understanding of the divorce, on the child's adjustment to divorce, as measured by classroom behavior.

Research Questions

This study asks the following overall research question: What relationships exist among children's understanding of their parents' divorce, their individual attribution styles, and their adjustment at school? The specific research questions are as follows:

1. Among children of divorce, is there a relationship between their understanding of their parents' divorce and their classroom behavior?
2. Among children of divorce, is there a relationship between their attribution style and their classroom behavior?
3. Among children of divorce, is there a relationship between their understanding of their parents' divorce and their attribution style?

This study will focus only on the elementary age child. Whereas the child's age at the time of separation and divorce has been shown to be related to the child's reaction to divorce, little agreement exists as to the most vulnerable age for children to experience parental divorce (Guidubaldi et al., 1983; Kurdek and Siesky, 1979, 1980a: Desimone-Luis, O'Mahoney and Hunt, 1979). However, the most extensive research on COD, the longitudinal study of Wallerstein and Kelly (1980) of children ages two and one-half through eighteen at the time of separation, concludes that children ages seven through thirteen seem to be more affected by parental separation than preschoolers or adolescents. Therefore, it seems that children of elementary school age appear to be particularly

vulnerable to the effects of parental divorce. In addition to the age of the child at the time of divorce, cognitive development, as previously mentioned, is another variable influencing the child's adjustment to divorce. The elementary age child is theoretically in the concrete operational stage of cognitive development and therefore his/her understanding of divorce is related to the notion of time, concept of relationships, cause and effect, and social justice. Several studies have referred to the significance of cognitive development in understanding the reaction of children to divorce (Allen, 1983; Longfellow, 1979; Neal, 1983). In addition, the level of cognitive development may also be related to the child's attribution style (Peterson et al., 1984; Young, 1983; Kurdek and Siesky, 1980a-b; Kurdek and Berg, 1983; Kelly and Berg, 1978). Clearly the influence of cognitive development in the study of children's age-specific adjustment to divorce cannot be overlooked. The age-specific findings of Wallerstein and Kelly (1980), Longfellow (1979), Young (1983), and Neal (1983) have resulted in the selection of nine and ten year old children as the focus of this research.

Method

Subjects

Subjects were fifty fourth and fifth grade students whose parents had been separated from four months to four years. Time since separation was determined by the parents' self report and was defined as the length of time parents had lived apart. Although

some children's parents were in the process of a divorce, the entire sample will be referred to as children of divorce (COD). A group of children from two parent families also participated in the study, in order to determine if differences existed in the classroom behavior and attribution style of children from divorced and intact families.

Description of Sample

The COD sample consisted of two different types of children: children whose parents were divorced and had been separated from four months to four years (separated and divorced group) and children whose parents were separated and in the process of a divorce (separated group).

The separated and divorced sample consisted of 24 girls and fourteen boys (N=38), whose average age was ten years - two months (SD=9 months). Average time since separation was two years - eight months (SD=1 year - 2 months) and the range of separation was five months to four years. The average time since divorce was two years - one month (SD=1 year - 1 month). Of the 38 separated and divorced children, 34 mothers and one father had custody, while three sets of parents had joint custody. The average length of the previous marriage before the divorce was ten years - ten months (SD=4 years). Parent demographic information concerning educational level, nature of employment, income level, and ethnic origin is summarized in Table A1.

Insert Table A1 about here

Although each parent, including spouses and ex-spouses, was asked to complete to Family Information Form, both parents did not complete the form and some did not fill out every item on the form. Therefore, the N for each item on the form varies on Tables A1-A4.

The separated sample consisted of twelve children, eight boys and four girls, whose average age was 10 years - 4 months. Average time since separation was eight months (SD=6 months). The range of separation time was four months to one year - eight months. Of the twelve children in the sample, nine of the mothers and one of the fathers had custody, while two children experienced a joint custody situation. The average length of the previous marriage before the divorce was ten years - five months (SD=5 years - 10 months). Parent demographic information concerning educational level, nature of employment, income level, and ethnic origin is presented in Table A2.

Insert Table A2 about here

Also, the parent information for the entire COD sample is presented in Table A3.

Insert Table A3 about here

The intact sample consisting of 27 children, eighteen boys and

nineteen girls, whose average age was ten years - four months. Twelve of the children had experienced a divorce and were presently living with remarried parents, while fifteen of the children lived with "ever married" parents. Parent demographic information concerning educational level, nature of employment, income level, and ethnic origin is presented in Table A4.

Insert Table A4 about here

The breakdown of the whole COD sample with regard to separation time indicated that 48% of the sample fell within the 0-2 year period, 18% ranked within the 2-3 year period, and 34% fell within the 3-4 year separation period.

Subject Selection

Subjects were selected from predominantly white middle class elementary schools in a large metropolitan city in East Tennessee. Seven city and three county public schools were included in the study. The total numbers of fourth and fifth graders in the selected city and county schools were 1106 and 1313, respectively. Students from 18 fourth grade classes and 24 fifth grade classes participated.

Letters describing the study, explaining the purpose of the research, and asking interested parents to return a form to the researcher were taken home in the fall of 1985 by all fourth and fifth grade students in the ten schools. Follow-up notices were

taken home approximately one to two weeks after the initial letter. Upon receipt of the returned form, the researcher then telephoned the divorced parents who had been separated no more than four years, in order to answer any questions about the research. The divorced parents who expressed interest on the telephone, as well as the intact parents who returned the form, were then mailed a second letter. The second letter specified more details of the study and asked for the parents' written permission for the child to participate. In the case of joint custody, parent permission from both parents was necessary. Along with the permission form, parents were asked to complete the Family Information Form.

Instruments

Four instruments were used to measure the three variables (children's understanding of divorce, attribution style, and classroom behavior) in this study. Children's understanding of the divorce was assessed using the Children's Separation Inventory (CSI) by Berg and Kurdek (1983). Attribution style was measured using the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children (Nowicki and Strickland, 1973) and the KASTAN-R, a revised version of the Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire by Kaslow, Tannenbaum and Seligman (1978). Classroom behavior was measured by the Teacher-Child Rating Scale (T-CRS) developed by the Primary Mental Health Project, Rochester, New York (1982-1983). All divorced and separated children were given the above battery of tests, while the children from intact families were given the same battery with one

exception. The children from intact families were given the Attitude Toward Family Questionnaire (Hammond, 1979) instead of the CSI. A description of each of these measures follows.

The Children's Separation Inventory (CSI). The CSI is an objective instrument developed to measure children's attitudes toward parental separation. It consists of 48 items keyed to the following six subscales: Peer Ridicule and Avoidance (CPRA), Paternal Blame (CPB), Maternal Blame (CMB), Self Blame (CSB), Fear of Abandonment (CFA), and Hope of Reunification (CHR). In addition to the subscale scores, a total score is also provided. Each response is keyed for maladjustment and a total score is obtained by summing all the maladjusted responses. The test is appropriate for children from age five upward.

Test-rest reliability, over a two week period, of the six subscale scores ranged from .63-.91, with the total test reliability being .83 (Berg, 1983). These coefficients provide evidence of the reliability of the CSI. Validity of the CSI has also been established. Content validity has been well established and documented in a lengthy description in the manual (Berg, 1983). Construct validity was established in a recent study by Kurdek and Berg (1983), which used measures of children's divorce adjustment, s reported by parents, teachers, and children. It was expected that difficulties in understanding the divorce would be significantly related to problems in adjustment. In all but one instance, the findings were statistically significant, thereby lending support for

the construct validity of the CSI (Berg, 1983).

This measure has been used in its present or previous form in several studies of COD (Kelly and Berg, 1978; Kurdek and Berg, 1983; Young, 1983; and Kurdek [in press]). Kurdek (in press) refers to the CSI as the most extensively developed and validated measure of children's attitudes about divorce.

Teacher-Child Rating Scale (T-CRS). The T-CRS is an in-depth teacher rating scale developed by the Primary Mental Health Prevention project in Rochester, N.Y. The scale evolved from two previous measures - the Classroom Adjustment Rating Scale (CARS), which measures school adjustment problems, and the Health Resources Inventory (HRI), which measures competent school behaviors. The T-CRS was developed in 1982-83 and consists of both problem behaviors and competent classroom behaviors exhibited by students in the classroom.

The T-CRS has two parts, classroom behavior problems (TOPS) and classroom competencies (TOCS). Part I (TOPS) consists of eighteen behaviorally-oriented items from the CARS, describing school adjustment problems, and Part II (TOCS) consists of 24 items from the HRI, assessing a child's strengths and positive attributes. The two parts and their subscales which make up the T-CRS, are described below. Part I items are rated on the following 5-point rating scale: (1) Not a Problem, (2) Very Mild Problem, (3) Moderate Problem, (4) Serious Problem, and (5) Very Serious Problem. Teachers' responses are categorized into three empirically derived

subscales: (1) Acting-Out, (2) Shy-Anxious, and (3) Learning Skills. Part II items are rated on 5-point scales according to how well they describe the child being rated: (1) Not a Problem, (2) Very Mild Problem, (3) Moderate Problem, (4) Serious Problem, and (5) Very Serious Problem. This part's three empirically determined subscales include: (1) Frustration Tolerance/Behavioral Limits, (2) Assertive Social Skills, and (3) Task-Orientation/Educational Performance.

The T-CRS takes approximately three to four minutes per child for an elementary teacher to complete, after a specified observation periods of approximately one month (Hightower, Spinell and Lotyczewski, 1984).

Sattler (1982) has studied the precursors of the T-CRS, the CARS and the HRI for reliability and validity. He reports that test-retest reliabilities and validity data on the CARS is adequate. On the HRI test-retest reliabilities range from .72 to .91 and Cronbach's alphas exceed .93, while validity is termed satisfactory (Hightower et al., 1984). With regard to the T-CRS, high reliability figures were obtained. Internal consistency reliability scores for each of the six factors yielded a Cronbach alpha coefficient range of .88-.95, while test-retest reliability over a ten week period yielded coefficients ranging from .61-.91. These reliability coefficients support the internal consistency and reliability over time of the T-CRS (Hightower et al., 1984). Validity of the T-CRS has been well established. When compared with

a non-referred sample of students matched on teacher, grade and sex, the referred sample was significantly more maladjusted or had fewer then the non-referred sample on all scales, except assertive social skills (Hightower et al., 1984).

While the CARS and HRI have been used in numerous studies (Kurdek and Berg, 1983; Felner et al., 1974; Felner et al., 1980; and Felner et al., 1981), the T-CRS has been used in only one study of COD, which compared children from intact and divorced families (fourth and fifth graders). Preliminary findings suggest that most scales of the T-CRS have discriminative power and that COD generally show less adjustment and fewer competencies than the intact group (Hightower, personal communication, December 18, 1984).

Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale for Children (NSLCS). The Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scales were designed to assess the construct of locus of control of reinforcement. In 1973, Nowicki and Strickland constructed and published the Children's Internal-External Control Scale. This scale is a 40-item test with a yes-no response mode. Responses may be keyed in an internal or an external direction. Since attribution style was a primary variable in this study, and externality and internality have been correlated with different variables, the researcher decided to report both an internal (N.S.-Int.) and an external (N.S.-Ext.) score for each subject. The test is appropriate for children ages nine through eighteen, and usually takes from ten to fifteen minutes to administer (Nowicki and Strickland, 1973).

Reliability statistics report internal consistency (split-half), via the Spearman-Brown formula, to be .63 (grades three through five), .68 (grades six through eight), .74 (grades nine through eleven), and .81 (grade twelve). Test-retest reliabilities taken six weeks apart yielded correlations of .63 (third grade), .66 (seventh grade), and .71 (tenth grade). These coefficients indicate that reliability is satisfactory. Validity studies correlated this measure with other measures of locus of control to establish construct validity, and found that the Nowicki-Strickland correlated moderately with these other locus of control measures. External and internal scores have been correlated with other variables. Externality has been found to be related to psychological maladjustment in children and hyperkinesis/aggression in boys. Internality has been associated with higher self esteem, leadership, delay of gratification, lower anxiety, achievement, and less interpersonal distance (Nowicki and Strickland, 1973). Several studies of COD have used this measure (Kurdek, Blisk and Siesky, 1981; Kurdek and Berg; 1983; Kurdek and Siesky, 1980a).

The KASTAN-R Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire Revised (KASTAN-R). The KASTAN-R was developed by Kaslow, Tannenbaum and Seligman (1978). It consists of 48 items, each of which presents an event (e.g. you get good grades) and two possible attributions to explain why the event occurred (e.g. I am a hard worker - school is simple). Respondents are asked to select the one sentence from the pair that best describes why the event happened.

The questions pertain to three attributional dimensions: internality, stability and globality, with half of the events having good and half having bad outcomes. There are six basic subscales on the KASTAN-R: (a) Good-Internal/External (KGIE), (b) Good-Stable/Unstable (KGSU), (c) Good-Global/Specific (KGGS), (d) Bad-Internal/External (KBIE), (e) Bad-Stable/Unstable (KBUS), and (f) Bad-Global/Specific (KBGS). In addition there is a "good" composite score (KGC) which consists of the three "good" subscales and a "bad" composite score (KBC) which is composed of the three "bad" subscales. The overall summary score (KOSS) is the "good" composite score minus the "bad" composite score. The lower the score, the more depressive is the attributional style. The composite score provides the best index of the child's attributional style.

Although the information provided with the KASTAN-R doesn't state the appropriate age range for the test, the research that established psychometric properties used third through sixth graders, while additional research using the KASTAN-R used children in grades one through eight and children from eight through eighteen years. No time estimate was included, but it appears that the measure would take about 20-25 minutes to administer (Kaslow, 1981).

The following reliability data are available from the Kastan Information Sheet (Kaslow, 1981). The internal consistency of the subscales is somewhat low, with coefficients ranging from .13-.52, as measured by Cronbach's alpha. The internal consistency of the "good" and "bad" composite scales are .31 and .51, respectively. In

addition, the Pearson reveals a significant relationship between the composite "good" and the composite "bad" scores ($r=.32$, $p<.001$), and between the composite "good" and the overall KASTAN-R score ($r=.83$, $p<.001$). Tests for the reliability of the KASTAN-R indicated that over a three month time period, attribution style, as measured by the overall summary score, appeared to be stable ($r=.72$) (Kaslow, 1981). While the reliability information on the composite and overall scores is adequate, the low internal consistency coefficients of the subscale scores raises questions about the psychometric soundness of the KASTAN-R.

Validity research consists primarily of investigating the relationships of the KASTAN-R to depression. The KASTAN-R and the Children's Depression Inventory (CDI) were administered to third through sixth graders, with the composite attribution style score correlating significantly with depression ($r=.62$, $p<.001$) (Kaslow, 1981). A second validity study used a sample of children in the first, fourth, and eighth grades. As was expected, the more depressed children made more internal-stable-global attributions for failure and more external-unstable-specific attributions for success than did their nondepressed counterparts ($r=.52$, $p<.001$). The finding was true for children in each grade (Kaslow, 1981).

Since this is a new instrument, few studies have used the KASTAN-R. The two studies that have utilized the KASTAN-R with children are Seligman et al. (1984) and Kaslow et al. (1984). No studies of COD have used the KASTAN-R.

The Attitude Toward Family Questionnaire. The Attitude Toward Family Questionnaire was developed by Hammond (1979) for use in her dissertation on children of divorce. The Attitude Toward Family Questionnaire measures attitudes towards parents, happiness and divorce, and is appropriate for use with children from both divorced and intact homes. The questionnaire consists primarily of categorical response sets in which students are asked to listen to the question and responses read by the researcher, and to put an "X" by the response that is most like how they feel. The measure was used with third through sixth graders in Hammond's study, and therefore is appropriate with the fourth and fifth graders in this study. No reliability and validity information is available on this instrument. The data collected on The Attitude Toward Family Questionnaire will not be used in this study.

Procedures

This section includes a description of procedures related to arrangements in the schools, selection and training of the student volunteers and actual data collection.

Arrangements in the schools

Fourth and fifth grade teachers were given an explanation of the project, and letters were distributed to all fourth and fifth grade students. Follow-up letters were sent home a week later. Those parents who had been separated for no more than four years and expressed interest were telephoned and received a second letter. The interested intact parents also received a second letter.

Teachers completed the Teacher Classroom Rating Scale on all participating children. If a child from an intact family was not available in a classroom where a COD was participating, the teacher completed the T-CRS on "a typical girl or boy", matching the sex of the COD. Each participating teacher was given a copy of a bibliography appropriate for children of divorce of different ages, as well as a resource list for parents and teachers (Hammond, 1979).

Volunteer Selection and Training

Student volunteers, solicited to assist in data collection, participated in two training sessions. The first training session involved an overview of the project, an explanation of the measures, a discussion of active child assent, an explanation of procedures in certain situations, and a summary of all steps in data collection. Volunteers then gave the questionnaires to practice subjects, ages seven through twelve. Volunteers paired up, observed each other working with the children, and completed feedback forms. The second training session involved an explanation of record keeping and the scoring of each measure, as well as a discussion of confidentiality issues and school procedures. Data collection began in early October and was completed by mid-December.

Results

The data were analyzed using the Pearson Product Moment Correlational Method. The .05 level of significance was selected. In addition, correlations that approached significance were reported. In order for a correlation to be regarded as approaching

significance, it had to have a probability of occurrence between the .10 and .05 levels of significance. Analyses of results included total score correlations and follow-up subscale correlations. Total score correlations were calculated using the total scores of the CSI, T-CRS, NSLCS, and the KASTAN-R to answer the research question. Follow-up correlations using the subscales of the measures were calculated and the level of significance was changed to .01, since more correlations were likely to be significant by chance alone due to the larger number of correlations. Tables of follow-up correlations are available as appendixes; however, any noteworthy findings are mentioned briefly in this chapter.

Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary analyses investigated differences in the mean scores of the total scores due to separation - divorce status, sex difference, and time since separation. The preliminary analyses are found in tables in the appendixes.

Separation-Divorce Status. Since the COD sample included two groups, the separated and divorced, and the separated, a preliminary analysis investigated group differences. A comparison of the means of the total scores of the measures for two groups revealed no significant differences in attribution style or classroom behavior. However, a significant difference was found in the total understanding of divorce score, with the separated group having a more maladjusted understanding of divorce than the separated and divorced group (Table B1). Mean scores and t-tests were then

calculated for the subscales of the CSI and a significant difference was found between the two groups on the Peer Ridicule and Avoidance (CPRA) subscale, with the separated group having more concerns about peer ridicule and avoidance than the separated and divorced group. The mean scores and t-test results for the total scores and for the subscales of the CSI may be found in Table B2. Since a difference was found in understanding of divorce for the separated and divorced versus the separated group, the correlations for the three research questions were calculated for the entire COD sample (separated and divorced, together) and for the divorced and separated groups, separately (Tables 1, 2, 3).

Sex Difference. Preliminary analysis also investigated sex differences. Although t-tests revealed no significant differences in the means of the total scores for boys and girls, correlations were run separately, in order to investigate sex differences in the relationships among the variables. The results of the t-tests and correlations for boys and girls are found in Tables B3, B4, B5 and B6, respectively.

Time Since Separation. Preliminary analyses also investigated differences due to separation time. A comparison of the means of the total scores for those separated less than two years (x=1 year - 2 months) (S.D.= months) and those separated for more than two years (x=3 years - 3 months) (S.D.= 7 months) revealed differences in the total understanding of divorce score, with the more recently separated group understanding the divorce in a more maladjusted way

(Table B7). Mean scores and t-tests were then calculated for the subscales of the CSI and revealed significant differences in Peer Ridicule and Avoidance (CPRA) and Hopes of Reunification (CHR), with the more recently separated group having more concerns about peer ridicule and avoidance and hopes of reunification (Table B8). Since a difference was found in understanding of divorce for those separated for less than and more than two years, the correlations for the three research questions were calculated for the two groups, separately (Tables B4, B5, B6, respectively).

Total Score Analyses

Results using the total scores were used to answer the research questions. Results are presented according to the overall COD sample, the divorced and separated groups, time since separation groups, and sex groups. Correlations for the entire COD sample, the divorced and the separated groups are presented in this chapter (Tables 1, 2, 3), while correlations for the time since separation and the sex groups are presented in the appendixes (Tables B4, B5, B6, respectively). Significant findings for the separated, divorced, sex groups and separation time will only be briefly mentioned. However, the findings related to the entire COD sample are of primary significance and are the only findings used to answer the research questions.

The Relationship Between Understanding of Divorce and Classroom Behavior

COD Sample. For the first research question, there were two

possible correlations between understanding of divorce and teacher reported problems and between understanding of divorce and teacher reported competencies. No significant relationships were found but both relationships approached significance, indicating a trend toward (a) an increasingly maladjusted understanding of divorce accompanying a greater number of teacher reported classroom behavior problems and (b) an increasingly maladjusted understanding of divorce accompanying fewer teacher reported competencies in classroom behavior (Table 1).

Insert Table 1 about here

Divorced and Separated Groups. No significant correlations were found for the divorced or separated groups (Table 1).

Separation Time and Sex Groups. No correlations were significant for the time since separation groups or the sex groups (Table B4).

Relationship Between Attribution Style and Classroom Behavior

COD Sample. For the second research question there were six possible correlations between attribution style and teacher reported classroom behavior problems and competencies. One significant relationship was found indicating that an increase in external locus of control accompanies an increase in teacher reported classroom problems. Two other correlations approached significance indicating a trend toward a relationship between (a) an increase in external

locus of control accompanying a decrease in teacher reported classroom competencies and (b) an increase in internal locus of control accompanying a decrease in teacher reported classroom problems (Table 2).

Insert Table 2 about here

Divorced and Separated Groups. For the divorced group one significant relationship was found between an increase in external locus of control and a decrease in teacher reported classroom competencies. No significant relationships were found for the separated group (Table 2).

Separation Time and Sex Groups. For the separation time group, one significant relationship emerged for the group separated for more than two years. The finding indicated that an increase in external locus of control accompanies an increase in teacher reported classroom problems for the group separated for more than two years, but not for the group separated for less than two years (Table B5).

No significant relationships were found for the boys' or girls' groups (Table B5).

Relationship Between Understanding of Divorce and Attribution Style

COD Sample. For the third research question, there were three possible correlations between understanding of divorce and attribution style. Two significant relationships were found,

indicating that an internal locus of control accompanies a more adjusted understanding of divorce and an external locus of control accompanies a more maladjusted understanding of divorce (Table 3).

Insert Table 3 about here

Divorced or Separated Groups. For the divorced group, the same significant relationship were found, indicating a relationship between an internal locus of control and a more adjusted understanding of divorce and between an external locus of control and a more maladjusted understanding of divorce. No significant relationships were found for the separated group (Table 3).

Separation Time and Sex Groups. For the separation time group, two significant relationships ($p<.01$) were found indicating that a more internal locus of control accompanies a more adjusted understanding of divorce and a more external locus of control accompanies a more maladjusted understanding of divorce, for the group separated for more than two years, but not for the group separated for less than two years (Table B6).

For the girls, the same significant relationships ($p<.01$) between internal locus of control and an adjusted understanding of divorce and between external locus of control and a maladjusted understanding of divorce were found, but the relationships were not significant for the boys (Table B6).

Summary of Findings

The findings of the three research questions, using the total scores and the entire COD sample, are summarized as follows: (a) There is not a significant relationship between children's understanding of divorce and teacher rated classroom behavior, although a trend toward a relationship is apparent, (b) Some evidence exists for a relationship between attribution style and classroom behavior, when the NSLCS is used as a measure of attribution style, and (c) Strong evidence exists for a relationship between understanding of divorce and attribution style when the NSLCS is used as a measure of attribution style.

Follow-up Subscale Analyses

Exploratory follow-up analyses using the subscale scores were calculated for the entire COD sample and for the girls and boys. Due to the large number of correlations and the likelihood of getting significance by chance alone, the .01 significance level was selected and the .05 level was designated as approaching significance. Significant findings are briefly mentioned, while tables of the findings are available in the appendixes.

For the first research question (understanding of divorce and classroom behavior), no significant relationships were found for the entire COD sample (Table B9), but significant findings emerged for the girls' and boys' groups. Two significant findings, both involving the Hopes of Reunification subscale, emerged for the girls (Table B10). The findings were that more hopes of reunification accompanied more behavior problems and more acting out behavior.

For the boys, all of the significant correlations involved the mother blame subscale (Table B11). The findings were that more mother blame accompanied more problems in overall behavior, acting out, and learning skills, and fewer competencies in frustration tolerance and behavior limits.

For the second research question (Attribution style and classroom behavior), no significant relationships were found for the entire COD sample (Table B12) or for the boys (Table B13). however, for the girls one significant relationship emerged (Table B14). The finding was that attributing bad outcomes to internal causes accompanied more problems in learning skills.

For the third research question (understanding of divorce and attribution style), significant relationships emerged for the entire COD sample and the girls, but not for the boys. The significant relationships for the entire sample involved the peer ridicule and avoidance and the total understanding of divorce subscales (Table B15). The significant findings were that fewer concerns about peer ridicule and avoidance accompanied a more internal locus of control and more concerns about peer ridicule and avoidance accompanied a more external locus of control. Other significant findings were that an internal locus of control accompanied a more adjusted understanding of divorce, while an external locus of control accompanied a more maladjusted understanding of divorce. The same two relationships involving understanding of divorce and locus of control were significant for the girls (Table B16). The findings

were that an internal locus of control accompanied a more adjusted understanding of divorce and an external locus of control accompanied a more maladjusted understanding of divorce. No significant relationships were found for the boys (Table B17).

Other Findings

The Relationship Between the Two Attribution Style Measures. The relationships between the two attribution style measures (NSLCS and the KASTAN-R) was investigated by correlating the subscale scores of the NSLCS and the KASTAN-R for the entire COD sample, the boys, the girls, and the intact group. Three significant correlations ($p<.05$) were found for the entire COD sample and two significant correlations for the girls, with all except one of the significant correlations involving the attributing good to global-specific factors (KGGS) subscale. No significant correlations were found for the boys' or the intact groups (Table B18).

A Comparison of Means Scores of Overall Problem and Overall Competency Scores for Intact Group Versus the COD Sample, and Other Groups. The means scores of classroom problems and competencies were compared for numerous groups (separated and divorced versus the separated, intact versus the separated and divorced, the intact versus the separated, and the boys versus the girls). T-tests yielded no significant differences in the mean scores for any of the groups.

In addition, mean scores of the overall problem and competency and subscale scores of the T-CRS were compared for the intact group

(including the "typical girls and boys") versus the COD sample. No significant differences were found in any of the mean scores for the two groups (Table B20).

A Comparison of Means Scores of Attribution Style for the Intact Versus the Separated and Divorced Groups. Mean total and mean subscale scores of the two attribution style measures (NSLCS and KASTAN-R) were compared for the intact versus the separated and divorced group. No significant differences in mean scores were found for the NSLCS scores, but for the KASTAN-R significant differences were found on two subscale scores (attributing bad to internal-external factors and bad attribution composite score), with the intact group having higher mean scores (Table B21).

Discussion

This section includes a discussion of the significant findings for each research question, the conclusions of the study, and the implications of the findings for future research.

Significant Findings of the Study

The Relationship Between Understanding of Divorce and Classroom Behavior. For the first research question, both correlations between understanding of divorce and problems and between understanding of divorce and competencies, approached significance. The relationships were in the expected direction, in that a more maladjusted understanding of divorce accompanied more problems and fewer competencies. With a larger sample, significant relationships would possibly have been found, since these findings approached

significance.

Although the follow-up correlations of the subscale scores were not used in answering the research questions, some interesting sex difference findings emerged. For the boys, all significant correlations between understanding of divorce and classroom behavior involved mother blame. These findings add to those of Young (1983) who reported that children who blame the mother or both parents anticipated greater difficulty in adjustment than those who blamed the father or neither parent, as well as the research by Kurdek (1981), who found that boys generally have more difficulty adjusting to divorce. In addition, Warchock and Santrock (1983) found that opposite sex-custody situations are more problematic than same sex custody situations. In this study, all but two of the boys lived with the mother. Therefore, the opposite sex custody arrangement may offer an explanation as to why boys had more significant correlations involving the mother blame subscale scores.

For the girls, both significant correlations between understanding of divorce and classroom behavior involved the Hopes of Reunification subscale. The findings suggest more of a relationship between Hopes of Reunification and Classroom Behavior (overall problems and acting out behaviors) for girls than for boys.

The Relationship Between Attribution Style and Classroom Behavior. For the second research question, the significant finding of a relationship between an external locus of control and a greater number of teacher rated classroom behavior problems is consistent

with the locus of control literature that associates externality with psychological maladjustment (Nowicki and Strickland, 1973). The two relationships that approached significance, internality associated with fewer teacher rated problem behaviors and externality associated with fewer teacher rated competent behaviors, are consistent with the previous findings by Garmezy (1983), Parkes (1984), and Nowicki and Strickland (1973) that internals exhibited more competent coping behaviors, while externals exhibited fewer competent and more palliative coping behaviors.

With regard to separation time, a significant relationship was found between externality and a greater number of teacher rated behavior problems for the group separated for more than two years, but not for the group separated for less than two years. It appears that after two years more of a relationship between externality and problems is apparent, possibly due to the "pile up factor", the additional strain of other changes at home being added to the previous changes brought about by the divorce (McCubbin and Patterson, 1983).

A significant follow-up correlation between an increase in attributing bad outcome to internal causes and an increase in problems in learning skills was found for the girls. This finding is particularly interesting in light of research by Dweck and Bush (1986) that as a result of their early school experiences, girls make more internal attributions for failure than boys.

The Relationship Between Understanding of Divorce and

Attribution Style. For the third research question, a strong relationship was found between understanding of divorce and attribution style, in that internality was associated with a more adjusted understanding of divorce and externality was associated with a more maladjusted understanding of divorce. These findings partially replicate previous COD research that found internal locus of control to be significantly related to children's divorce adjustment (Kurdek and Sieksy, 1980a, and Kurdek and Berg, 1983).

With regard to separation time, significant relationships were found between internality and an adjusted understanding of divorce and between externality and a maladjusted understanding of divorce, for the group separated for more than two years, but not for the group separated for less than two years, but not for the group separated for less than two years. These findings suggest that understanding of divorce and attribution style are more related over time. Since internality has been found to be related to a positive adjustment in COD (Kurdek and Siesky, 1980a, and Kurdek and Berg, 1983) and internals have been found to be better copers (Garmezy, 1983; Parkes, 1984; and Nowicki and Strickland, 1973), perhaps over time the internals are experiencing the positive consequences of their efforts to cope (McCubbin and Patterson, 1983). Therefore the relationship between understanding of divorce and attribution style needs to be considered as a process, with the internals likely experiencing the positive consequences of their successful coping efforts, accompanied by an increasingly adjusted understanding of

divorce, while the externals may experience the negative consequences of their coping strategies accompanied by an increasingly maladjusted understanding of divorce.

Significant follow-up correlations for the separated and divorced group involved two subscales, Peer Ridicule and Avoidance and Total Understanding of Divorce (Table B15). The findings of an association between internality and fewer concerns of peer ridicule and avoidance, and externality and more peer concerns, is consistent with other COD research that concludes that children with an internal locus of control have few concerns about Peer Ridicule and Avoidance (Kurdek and Siesky, 1980a). The findings of an association between internality and a more adjusted understanding of divorce and externality and a more maladjusted understanding of divorce is related to previous COD research that found that children with an internal locus of control have a more positive adjustment to divorce than externals (Kurdek and Siesky, 1980a, and Kurdek and Berg, 1983). It is interesting that the same significant relationships between locus of control and understanding of divorce were found for girls, (Table B16), but not for boys (Table B17). Perhaps the larger number of girls in the sample could account for the stronger relationship between locus of control and understanding of divorce for girls than for boys.

Other Findings

The Relationship Between the Attribution Style Measures. The findings regarding the correlations of the two attribution style

measures were surprising. Theoretically two instruments that measure the same or a similar construct, should be significantly correlated. However, the NSLCS, being a more general attribution style measure, and the KASTAN-R, being a more specific attribution style measure, apparently measure quite different aspects of attribution style.

A Comparison of the Mean Subscale Scores of Classroom Behavior for the Intact Group Versus the COD Sample. The finding of no significant differences in the mean scores of any of the classroom behavior subscales for the intact group versus the COD sample was surprising. Previous studies by Hammond (1979), and Stolberg and Anker (1983) have reported differences in the classroom behavior of children from divorced and intact families. However, since 52% of the sample had been separated for longer than two years and included children whose parents had been separated for as long as three and four years, maybe any prior behavior problems had subsided. The finding by Warren et al. (1985), that fewer differences remain between divorced and intact families three years after separation would support this explanation.

CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

In this brief section, an attempt will be made to present the conclusions of the study and relate the findings to the model used in the study. The conclusions of the three research questions are presented below.

Understanding of Divorce and Classroom Behavior.

1. Although not significant, a trend toward an increasingly maladjusted understanding of divorce accompanying a greater number of teacher rated classroom behavior problems and a lower number of competent behaviors was found.

2. Significant findings suggest a pattern of sex differences in the relationship between understanding of divorce and classroom problems, with boys having more significant relationship involving mother blame and girls have more significant relationship involving hopes of reunification.

Attribution Style and Classroom Behavior.

1. Some evidence exists for a relationship between attribution style and classroom behavior, in that an increasingly external locus of control was found to accompany a greater number of teacher rated behavior problems. A trend toward a relationship between internality and fewer classroom problem behaviors and between externality and fewer competent classroom behaviors was also found.

2. The significant relationships between externality and teacher rated behavior problems becomes stronger with increasing time since separation.

3. No differences existed between children from intact and separated and divorced families in classroom behavior, and only minimal differences were found in attribution style, indicating that the children in both groups are from the same homogeneous population.

Understanding of Divorce and Attribution Style.

1. Strong evidence exists for the relationship between locus of control and understanding of divorce, in that internality is associated with an increasingly adjusted understanding of divorce and externality is associated with an increasingly maladjusted understanding of divorce.

2. These relationships appear to be much stronger for girls than for boys, and the strength of the relationship seem to increase with time since separation.

3. Few concerns about Peer Ridicule and Avoidance is strongly associated with internality and conversely more concerns about Peer Ridicule and Avoidance is strongly associated with externality. This finding is interesting in light of the finding that the group separated for less than two years also had a significantly greater number of concerns about Peer Ridicule and Avoidance than the group separated for more than two years.

Overall Conclusion. In this research the most empirical support was found for the relationship between understanding of divorce and locus of control, with a significant relationship apparent for the entire COD sample and for girls, but not for boys. This relationship also becomes stronger with increased time since separation. However, since the COD and children from intact families did not differ with regard to internal or external locus of control, it appears that COD do not differ from children from intact families in terms of their locus of control orientation. Perhaps locus of control may not be related just to understanding of

divorce, but to the understanding of other events as well. The implications of the findings and the broader issue addressed by the relationship may be that an internal locus of control is associated with understanding other difficult or "crisis situations" in a more adjusted manner. The model (Figure 5) investigates how intervening variables or crisis meeting resources may affect the outcome of major stressor events in children. It appears that internal locus of control may be one of the key mediating variable or crisis meeting resource that strongly influences the manner in which may become stronger with increasing time since the even. In the words of Kurdek and Siesky (1980a),

> children who perceive events as being under their control are likely to avoid constructing a view of a divorce (or a major stressful event) and its consequences in which the child views him/herself as a helpless target of external forces (p.376).

In fact, it may be that internal locus of control is the variable that predisposes certain children to be more or less vulnerable to the changes inherent in a major, stressful life event.

Directions for Future Research

The results of this study have implications for future COD research in four week separation time, sex differences and understanding of divorce, and the amount of change the child is experiencing, and the relationship between different understandings of divorce and behavior patterns.

In regard to separation time, future research needs to control for length of separation and compare the reactions of children whose parents have been separated for different lengths of time. Warren et al. (1985) suggest a break down of 0-1, 1-3, 3-5 and 5+ years since separation. However, since the most stressful period is the 0-2 year time periods after separation, it seems more reasonable to break down separation time in 0-2, 2-3, 3-4 and 4-5 year time periods. In fact, since the 0-2 year time period is the most stressful, a break down of separation time from 0-6 months, 6 months-1 year, and 1-2 years would be useful in assessing how the child's understanding of divorce changes during this most stressful period. Although Warren et al. (1985) group the 5+ years since separation together, it seems that longitudinal studies over as much as 10-15 years would be useful in documenting the manner in which one's understanding of divorce evolves and changes with new life experiences.

Another area for future research is that of sex differences. While previous research has documented that boys experience more difficulty in divorce-related adjustment, little research has been done with regard to sex differences in the understanding of divorce. The findings of this study indicate that boys have more relationships with classroom behavior and mother blame, while girls have more relationships with classroom behavior and hope of reconciliation. Future research needs to explore the sex differences that appear to be emerging in the relationships between

the child's understanding of divorce and classroom behavior, and explore the implications of these differences for professionals working with parents and teachers of COD.

Finally, future research needs to include measures which control for the amount of change that the child is experiencing. In light of recent research by Stolberg and Anker (1984), Sterling et al. (1985), and Eiduson (1984) that indicates a relationship between the number of stressful events and classroom behavior, future research needs to control for the number of major stressful events (i.e., the amount of change) a child is experiencing.

Research on the child's understanding of divorce as a mediating variable in the child's adjustment and reaction to divorce, promises to be a fertile area of investigation. Whereas Peterson et al. (1984) have presented a model for the effect of divorce on children, which focuses primarily on the child's definition of the divorce as a mediating variable in adjustment, numerous other researchers, primarily Kurdek, Berg, Stolberg, Young and Neal are actively investigating the child's understanding of divorce and the implications for adjustment and intervention. Sterling et al. (1985) challenge researchers to the task of untangling the consequences of stressful life events, and the factors that mediate those consequences, in ways that can lead to sound primary prevention interventions for children exposed to such events. The potential contribution that the research on children's understanding of divorce can make to the development of effective intervention

programs is indeed promising. In the words of Levitin (1979)

> It is clear that divorce is a time of crisis for children ... [However] the effects of that crisis may be both positive and negative; sometimes mild and sometimes severe; and have different short- and long-term consequences for different children and their families (p. 23).

The Chinese word for crisis consists of two words meaning "danger" and "opportunity." Hopefully, by continued research on children's understanding of divorce and adjustment, and application of this research to intervention programs, children experiencing the "danger" associated with divorce may be offered the experiences to develop strength, sensitivity to others' feelings, and coping skills, that will turn the crisis into an "opportunity" for growth.

References

Allen, J. (1983). Children's cognitive abilities and crisis events. Unpublished manuscript, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Allers, R. D. (1982). Divorce, children and the school. Princeton: Princeton Publishing Company.

Belstad, O. P., & Johnson, S. M. (1977). The relationship between teacher's assessment of students and the student's actual behavior in the classroom. Child Development, 48, 570-578.

Berg, B. (1982). The changing family game. Dayton, OH: Cognitive-Behavioral Resources.

Berg, B. (1983). Children's separation inventory manual. (Unpublished manuscript).

Bernard, J. M., & Nesbitt, S. (1981). Divorce: An unreliable predictor of children's emotional predispositions. Journal of Divorce, 4(4), 31-41.

Brody, L. R., & Carter, A. S. (1982). Children's emotional attributions to self versus other: An exploration of an assumption underlying projective techniques. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 50(5), 665-671.

Bugenthal, D. B., Whalen, C. K., & Henker, B. (1977). Causal attribution of hyperactive children and motivational assumptions of two behavior change approaches: Evidence for an interactionist perspective. Child Development, 48, 874-884.

Coddington, R. D. (1972). The significance of life events as etiological factors in the diseases of children: II. A study of a normal population. Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 16, 205-213.

Depue, R. A., & Monroe, S. M. (1978). Learned helplessness in the perspective of the depressive disorder: Conceptual and definitional issues. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 87(1), 3-20.

Desimone-Luis, J., O'Mahoney, K. & Hunt, D. (1979). Children of separation and divorce: Factors influencing adjustment. Journal of Divorce, 3(1), 47-42.

Drake, E. A. (1981). Helping children cope with divorce: The role of the school. In I. Stuart & L. Abt (Eds.), Children of separation and divorce: Management and treatment (pp. 147-171). New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Co.

Drake, E. A., & Shellenberger, S. (1981). Children of separation and divorce: A review of school programs and implications for the psychologist. School Psychology Review, 10(1), 54-61.

Dweck, C. S. (1975). The role of expectations and attributions in the alleviation of learned helplessness. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31, 674-685.

Dweck, C. S., & Bush, E. S. (1976). Sex differences in learned helplessness: (1) Differential debilitation with peer and adult evaluators. Developmental Psychology, 12, 147-156.

Dweck, C. S., Davidson, W., Nelson, S., and Enna, B. (in press). Sex differences in learned helplessness: (II) The contingencies of evaluative feedback in the classroom, and (III) An experimental analysis. Developmental Psychology.

Dweck, C. S., & Goetz, R. E. (1978). Attributions and learned helplessness. In J. Harvey, W. Ickes, & R. Kidd (Eds.), New direction in attribution research. (Vol. 2, pp. 157-179). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Eiduson, B. T. (1984). Conflict and stress in nontraditional families: Impact on children. In A. Thomas & S. Chess (Eds.), Annual Progress in Child Psychiatry and Development (pp. 249-262). New York: Bruner Mazel.

Emery, R. E. (1982). Interpersonal coefficient and the children of discord and divorce. Psychological Bulletin, 92(2), 310-330.

Evans, A., & Neel, J. (1980, September). School behaviors of children from one-parent and two-parent homes. Principal, 38-39.

Everly, K. (1977, Summer). New directions in divorce research. Journal of Clinical Care Psychology, 7-10.

Felner, R. D., Farber, S. S., Ginter, M.A., Boike, M. F., & Cowen, I. L. (1980). Family stress and organization following parental divorce or death. Journal of Divorce, 4(2), 67-76.

Felner, R. D., Ginter, M. A., Boike, M. F., & Cowen, E. L. (1981). Parental death or divorce and the school adjustment of young children. American Journal of Community Psychology, 9(2), 181-191.

Felner, R. D., Stolberg, A., & Cowen, E. L. (1975). Crisis events and school mental health referral patterns of young children. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology 43(3), 305-310.

Folkman, S. (1984). Personal control and stress and coping processes: A theoretical analysis. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46(4), 839-852.

Garmezy, N. (1983). Stresses of childhood. In N. Garmezy & M. Rutter (Eds.), Stress, coping and development in children (pp. 43-83). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Garmezy, N., & Rutter M. (1983). Stress, coping and development in children. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Gerstein, J. C., Langner, T. S., Eisenberg, J. G., & Orzeck, L. (1974). Child behavior and life events. In B. S. Dohrenwerd & B. P. Dohrenwerd (Eds.), Stressful life events: Their nature and effects (pp. 159-170). New York: Wiley.

Goldman, R. K., & King, M. J. (1985). Counseling children of divorce. School Psychology Review, 12(3), 280-289.

Guidubaldi, J., Perry, J., Cleminshaw, H., & McLoughlan, C. (1983). The impact of parental divorce on children: Report of the nationwide study. School Psychology Review 12(3), 300-323.

Gurin, P., Gurin, G., Lao, R. C., & Beattie, M. (1969). Internal-external control in the motivational dynamics of Negro youth. Journal of Social Issues, 25(3), 29-53.

Hammond, J. M. (1979). Children of divorce: A study of self-concept, school behaviors, attitudes and situational variables. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Michigan, 1979). Dissertation Abstracts International, 40, 672A.

Heisel, J. J., Ream, S., Raitz, R., Rappoport, M. & Coddington, R.D. (1974). The significance of life events as contributing factors in the diseases of children. Journal of Pediatrics, 83, 119-123.

Hightower, A. D., Spinell, A., & Lotyczewski, B. S. (1984). Primary mental health project: Teacher-child rating scale (T-CRS) guidelines. (Available from Dept. of Psychology, University of Rochester, Rochester, NY. 14627).

Hill, R. (1958). Social stresses on the family: Generic features of families under stress. Social Casework, 39, 139-150.

Hodges, W. F., Tierney, C. W., & Buchsbaum, H. K. (1984, August). The cumulative effect of stress on preschool children of divorced and intact families. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 611-617.

Kaslow, N. J. (1981). KASTAN interim information sheet. Unpublished manuscript.

Kaslow, N. J., Rehn, L. P., & Siegel, A. W. (1984). Social cognitive and cognitive correlates of depression in children. Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 12, 605-620.

Kaslow, N. J., Tanenbaum, R. L., & Seligman, M. E. P. (1978). The KASTAN: A children's attributional style questionnaire. Unpublished manuscript, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

Kelly, J. B., & Wallerstein, J. S. (1976). The effects of parental divorce: Experiences of the child in early latency. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 46(1), 20-32.

Kelly, R., & Berg, B. (1978). Measuring children's reactions to divorce. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 34(1), 215-221.

Krantz, S. E., & Rude, S. (1984). Depressing attributions: Selection of different causes or assignment of dimensional meanings. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47(1), 193-203.

Krantz, S. E., Clark, J. P., & Uster, M. (1985). Cognition and adjustment among children of separation or divorced parents. Cognitive Therapy and Research, 9(1), 61-77.

Kurdek, L. A. (1981). An integrative perspective on children's divorce adjustment. American Psychologist, 36(8), 856-866.

Kurdek, L. A. (1983). Concluding comments. In L. A. Kurdek (Ed.), Children and divorce: New directions for child development, Vol. 19, (pp. 83-88). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kurdek, L. A. (in press). Children's reasoning about parental divorce. In R. D. Ashmore & D. M. Brokzinsky (Eds.), Perspectives on the family. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Kurdek, L. A., & Berg, B. (1983). Correlates of children's adjustment to their parents' divorces. In L. A. Kurdek (Ed.), Children and divorce: New directions for child development, Vol. 19, (pp. 47-60). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Kurdek, L. A., Blisk, D., & Siesky, A. (1981). Correlates of children's long term adjustment to their parents' divorce. Developmental Psychology, 17(5), 565-579.

Kurdek, L. A., & Siesky, A. E. (1979). An interview study of parents' perceptions of their children's reactions and adjustments to divorce. Journal of Divorce, 3(1), 5-16.

Kurdek, L. A., & Siesky, A. E. (1980a). Children's perceptions of their parents' divorce. Journal of Divorce, 3(4), 339-379.

Kurdek, L. A., & Siesky, A. E. (1980b). Effects of divorce on children's relationship between parent and child perspectives. Journal of Divorce, 4(2), 85-99.

Lazarus, R. S., & Launier, R. (1978). Stress-related transactions between person and environment. In L. A. Perum & M. L. Lewis (Eds), Perspectives in international psychology. (pp. 287-327). Pelnum, N. Y.:

Lefcourt, H. M. (1982). Locus of control: Current trends in theory and research. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Levitin, T. (1979). Children of divorce: An introduction. Journal of Social Issues, 35(4), 1-25.

Longfellow, C. (1979). Divorce in context: Its impact on children. In G. Levinger & O. C. Moles (Eds.), Divorce and separation: Context, causes, and consequences, (pp. 287-306). New York: Basic Books.

McCubbin, H. I., & Patterson, I. M. (1983). Family transitions: Adaptation to stress. In H. I. McCubbin & C. R. Figley (Eds.), Stress and the family Vol. I: Coping with normative transitions, (pp. 5-25). New York: Brunner/Mazel.

McDermott, J. F. (1968). Parental divorce in early childhood. American Journal of Psychiatry, 124, 1424-1432.

McDermott, J. F. (1970). Divorce and its psychiatric sequelae in children. Archives of General Psychiatry, 23, 421-427.

Mueller, D. F., Edwards, D. W., Farris, R., & Yarvis, M. (1977, September). Stressful life events and psychiatric symptomatology: Change of undesirability. Journal of Health and School Behavior, 18, 307-317.

Muir, M. (1977, Summer). Children and divorce: Opportunities for continuing research and practical applications. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, p. 2.

Neal, J. H. (1983). Children's understanding of their parents' divorce. In L. A. Kurdek (Ed.), Children and divorce: New directions for child development, Vol. 19 (pp. 3-14). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Nowicki, S., & Duke, M. P. (1983). The Nowicki-Strickland life span locus of control scales: Construct validation research with locus of control construct: Vol. 2. Developments and social problems. New York: Academic Press.

Nowicki, S. & Strickland, B. R. (1973). Nowicki-Strickland manual: Children's form, (pp. 1-22). (Available from Emory University, Atlanta, GA., 30307).

Parkes, K. R. (1984). Locus of control, cognitive appraisal, and coping in stressful episodes. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46(3), 655-668.

Pedro-Carroll, J. A. (1985). The children of divorce intervention program. (Available from University of Rochester Center for Community Study, Rochester, NY, 14627).

Peterson, C. (1983). Clouds and silver linings: Depressive symptoms and causal attributions about ostensibly "good" and "bad" events. Cognitive Therapy and Research, 7(6), 575-578.

Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. E. (1984). Causal explanations as a risk factor for depression: Theory and evidence. Psychological Review, 91(3), 347-374.

Peterson, C., Semmel, A., Baeyer, C., Abramson, L. Y., Metolsky, G. I., & Seligman, M. E. P. (1982). The attributional style questionnaire. Cognitive Therapy and Research, 6(3), 287-300.

Peterson, G. W., Leigh, G. K., & Day, R. D. (1984). Family stress theory and the impact of divorce on children. Journal of Divorce, 7(1), 1-20.

Rizley, R. (1978). Depression and distortion in the attribution of causality. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 87(1), 32-48.

Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. Psychological Monographs, 80(1), Whole No. 609.

Rutter, M. (1981). Stress, coping and development: Some issues and some questions. Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 22(4), 323-356.

Sandler, I. N., & Block, M. (1979). Life stress and maladaptation of children. American Journal of Community Psychology, 7(4), 425-441.

Sandler, I. N. & Ramsay, T. B. (1980). Dimensional analysis of children's stressful life events. American Journal of Community Psychology, 8(3), 285-302.

Sarason, I. G., Johnson, J. H., & Siegel, J. M. (1978). Assessing the impact of life-changes: Development of the life-experiences survey. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 46(5), 932-946.

Saudargas, R. A., & Creed, V. (1980). State event classroom observation system. Unpublished manuscript, University of Tennessee, Knoxville.

Seligman, M. E. P., Kaslow, N. J., Alloy, L. B., Peterson, C., Tannenbaum, R. L., & Abramson, L. Y. (1984). Attributional style and depressive symptoms among children. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 93(2), 235-238.

Selman, R. L. (1971). Taking another's perspective: Role-taking development in early childhood. Child Development, 42, 1721-1734.

Selman, R. L. (1974). The development of conceptions of interpersonal relations: A structural analysis and procedures for the assessment of levels of interpersonal reasoning based on levels of social perspective-taking. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University.

Selman, R. L., & Byrne, D. K. (1974). Structural-developmental analysis of levels of role-taking in middle childhood. Child Development, 45, 803-806.

Sterling, S., Cowen, E. L., Weissberg, R. P., Lotyczewski, B. S., & Boike, M. (1985). Recent stressful life events and young children's school adjustment. American Journal of Community Psychology, 13(1), 81-98.

Stolberg, A. L., & Anker, J. M. (1983). Cognitive and behavioral changes in children resulting from parental divorce and consequent environmental changes. Journal of Divorce, 1(2), 30-45.

Stolberg, A. L., & Bush, J. P. (in press). A path analysis of factors predicting children's divorce adjustment. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology.

Stolberg, A. L., & Cullen, P. M. (1983). Preventive interventions for families of divorce. In L. A. Kurdek (Ed.), Children and divorce: New directions of child development. Vol. 19 (pp. 71-81). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Stolberg, A. L., & Garrison, K. M. (1981). Divorce adjustment project: Children's support group. Richmond, VA: National Institute of Mental Health, Virginia Commonwealth University.

Wallerstein, J. S., & Kelly, J. B. (1976). The effects of parental divorce: Experiences of the child in later latency. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 40(2), 256-267.

Wallerstein, J. S., & Kelly, J. B. (1980). Surviving the breakup: How children and parents cope with divorce. New York: Basic Books, Inc.

Warren, N. J., Ilgen, F. R., Grew, R. S., Konanc, J. T., & Amara, I. (1985). Time since separation: Another perspective on the NASP study of divorce. School Psychology Review, 14(3), 373-377.

Warren, R. A., & Santrock, J. W. (1983). The impact of divorce in father-custody and mother-custody homes: The child's perspective. In L.A. Kurdek (Ed.), Children and divorce: New directions for child development (pp. 29-46). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Young, D. M. (1983). Two studies of children of divorce. In L. A. Kurdek (Ed.), Children and divorce: New directions for child development. Vol. 19. (pp. 61-69). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Appendix A

Tables of Demographic Information

TABLE A1

PARENT DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FOR THE SEPARATED AND DIVORCED GROUP

	SELF	X-SP	SP
1. Highest Level of Education			
1. Completed less than grade 8	1 (3%)	1 (14%)	
2. Attended high school but did not graduate	8 (22%)		
3. Graduated from high school	12 (32%)	3 (43%)	
4. Attended college but did not graduate	10 (27%)		
5. Graduated from college	6 (16%)	3 (43%)	
6. Attended or finished graduate school	(N=37)	(N=7)	
2. Degree Working Toward If In School Now			
1. High school diploma or GED	2 (25%)		
2. Associate degree (AA-2 yr. college degree)	2 (25%)	1 (50%)	
3. College degree (B.A., B.S., & R.N.)	1 (12.5%)		
4. Master's	2 (25%)		
5. Doctorate		1 (50%)	
6. Other-Explain	1 (12.5%)		
7. None	(N=8)	(N=2)	
3. Nature of Current Job			
1. Laborers, except farm or mine	2 (6%)		
2. Service workers, including private household			
3. Operatives and kindred workers		1 (17%)	
4. Craftsperson, foreperson, and kindred worker			
5. Clerical, sales, and kindred workers	10 (30%)		
6. Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm	4 (12%)	2 (33%)	
7. Professional, technical, and kindred workers	17 (52%)	3 (50%)	
8. Not working	(N=33)	(N=6)	
4. Change in Work Situation			
1. Worked at home before the divorce and now work outside home	7 (29%)		
2. Now am employed parttime outside the home	2 (8%)		
3. Now am employed fulltime outside the home	9 (38%)	2 (100%)	
4. Now attending school			
5. Now attending school and working parttime outside home	1 (4%)		
6. Now attending school and working fulltime outside home	2 (8%)		
7. No change	3 (13%)		
5. Amount of Income Previous Year	(N=24)	(N=2)	
1. Below $10,000	6 (16%)	1 (50%)	
2. $10,000-19,999	18 (47%)		
3. $20,000-29,999	10 (26%)	1 (50%)	
4. $30,000-39,999	4 (11%)		
5. $40,000-49,999			
6. $50,000 and above	(N=38)	(N=2)	
6. Ethnic Origin			
1. Caucasian	37 (97%)	7 (100%)	
2. Black	1 (3%)		
3. Oriental			
4. Other	(N=38)	(N=7)	

TABLE A2

PARENT DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FOR THE SEPARATED GROUP

	SELF	X-SP	SP
1. Highest Level of Education			
1. Completed less than grade 8	1 (8%)		
2. Attended high school but did not graduate	4 (33%)	2 (40%)	
3. Graduated from high school	2 (17%)	2 (40%)	
4. Attended college but did not graduate	3 (25%)		
5. Graduated from college	2 (17%)	1 (20%)	
6. Attended or finished graduate school	(N=12)	(N=5)	
2. Degree Working Toward If In School Now			
1. High school diploma or GED	1 (50%)		
2. Associate degree (AA-2 yr. college degree)			
3. College degree (B.A., B.S., & R.N.)			
4. Master's	1 (50%)		
5. Doctorate			
6. Other-Explain			
7. None			
3. Nature of Current Job	(N=2)		
1. Laborers, except farm or mine			
2. Service workers, including private household	1 (12.5%)		
3. Operatives and kindred workers			
4. Craftsperson, foreperson, and kindred worker			
5. Clerical, sales, and kindred workers	2 (25%)		
6. Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm	1 (12.5%)		
7. Professional, technical, and kindred workers	3 (38%)		
8. Not working	1 (12.5%)		
4. Change in Work Situation	(N=8)		
1. Worked at home before the divorce and now work outside home			
2. Now am employed parttime outside the home	2 (50%)		
3. Now am employed fulltime outside the home	1 (25%)		
4. Now attending school			
5. Now attending school and working parttime outside home			
6. Now attending school and working fulltime outside home			
7. No change	1 (25%)		
5. Amount of Income Previous Year	(N=4)		
1. Below $10,000	4 (44%)		
2. $10,000-19,999	3 (33%)		
3. $20,000-29,999			
4. $30,000-39,999			
5. $40,000-49,999	1 (11%)		
6. $50,000 and above	1 (11%)		
6. Ethnic Origin	(N=9)		
1. Caucasian	8 (67%)		
2. Black	3 (25%)		
3. Oriental			
4. Other	1 (8%)		
	(N=12)		

TABLE A3

PARENT DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FOR THE ENTIRE COD SAMPLE

	SELF	X-SP	SP
1. Highest Level of Education			
1. Completed less than grade 8	2 (4%)	1 (8%)	
2. Attended high school but did not graduate	12 (24%)	2 (17%)	
3. Graduated from high school	14 (29%)	5 (42%)	
4. Attended college but did not graduate	13 (27%)		
5. Graduated from college	8 (16%)	4 (33%)	
6. Attended or finished graduate school	(N=49)	(N=12)	
2. Degree Working Toward If In School Now			
1. High school diploma or GED	3 (30%)		
2. Associate degree (AA-2 yr. college degree)	2 (20%)	1 (50%)	
3. College degree (B.A., B.S., & R.N.)	1 (10%)		
4. Master's	3 (30%)		
5. Doctorate		1 (50%)	
6. Other-Explain	1 (10%)		
7. None	(N=10)	(N=2)	
3. Nature of Current Job			
1. Laborers, except farm or mine	2 (5%)		
2. Service workers, including private household	1 (20%)		
3. Operatives and kindred workers		1 (17%)	
4. Craftsperson, foreperson, and kindred worker	12 (29%)		
5. Clerical, sales, and kindred workers	5 (12%)	2 (33%)	
6. Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm	20 (49%)	3 (50%)	
7. Professional, technical, and kindred workers	1 (2%)		
8. Not working	(N=41)	(N=6)	
4. Change in Work Situation			
1. Worked at home before the divorce and now work outside home	7 (25%)		
2. Now am employed parttime outside the home	4 (15%)		
3. Now am employed fulltime outside the home	10 (36%)	2 (100%)	
4. Now attending school			
5. Now attending school and working parttime outside home	1 (4%)		
6. Now attending school and working fulltime outside home	2 (7%)		
7. No change	4 (15%)		
5. Amount of Income Previous Year	(N=28)	(N=2)	
1. Below $10,000	10 (21%)	1 (50%)	
2. $10,000-19,999	21 (45%)		
3. $20,000-29,999	10 (21%)	1 (50%)	
4. $30,000-39,999	4 (9%)		
5. $40,000-49,999	1 (2%)		
6. $50,000 and above	1 (2%)		
6. Ethnic Origin	(N=47)	(N=2)	
1. Caucasian	45 (90%)	7 (100%)	
2. Black	4 (8%)		
3. Oriental			
4. Other	1 (2%)		
	(N=50)	(N=7)	

TABLE A4

PARENT DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FOR THE INTACT GROUP

	SELF	X-SP	SP
1. Highest Level of Education			
1. Completed less than grade 8	1 (4%)		1 (4%)
2. Attended high school but did not graduate	1 (4%)		1 (4%)
3. Graduated from high school	6 (22%)		4 (15%)
4. Attended college but did not graduate	7 (26%)		3 (11%)
5. Graduated from college	2 (7%)		5 (19%)
6. Attended or finished graduate school	10 (37%)		13 (48%)
	(N=27)		(N=27)
2. Degree Working Toward If In School Now			
1. High school diploma or GED			1 (50%)
2. Associate degree (AA-2 yr. college degree)			
3. College degree (B.A., B.S., & R.N.)	1 (50%)		1 (50%)
4. Master's	1 (50%)		
5. Doctorate			
6. Other-Explain			
7. None			
	(N=2)		(N=2)
3. Nature of Current Job			
1. Laborers, except farm or mine	1 (5%)		
2. Service workers, including private household	3 (15%)		2 (8%)
3. Operatives and kindred workers	1 (5%)		
4. Craftsperson, foreperson, and kindred worker			1 (5%)
5. Clerical, sales, and kindred workers	4 (20%)		2 (8%)
6. Managers, officials, and proprietors, except farm			
7. Professional, technical, and kindred workers	10 (50%)		17 (71%)
8. Not working	1 (5%)		
	(N=20)		(N=24)
4. Change in Work Situation			
1. Worked at home before the divorce and now work outside home			
2. Now am employed parttime outside the home			
3. Now am employed fulltime outside the home			
4. Now attending school			
5. Now attending school and working parttime outside home			
6. Now attending school and working fulltime outside home			
7. No change			
5. Amount of Income Previous Year (Combined Income)			
1. Below $10,000	3 (23%)		1 (6%)
2. $10,000-19,999	4 (31%)		4 (25%)
3. $20,000-29,999	5 (38%)		7 (44%)
4. $30,000-39,999			4 (25%)
5. $40,000-49,999	1 (8%)		
6. $50,000 and above		1 (100%)	
	(N=13)	(N=1)	(N=16)
6. Ethnic Origin			
1. Caucasian	27 (100%)		27 (100%)
2. Black			
3. Oriental			
4. Other			
	(N=27)		(N=27)

Appendix B

Tables of Statistical Analyses

TABLE B-1

MEANS AND t-TESTS OF THE TOTAL SCORES OF THE CSI (C-TOT), NSLCS (NS-INT., NS-EXT.), KASTAN-R (KOSS), AND T-CRS (TOPS AND TOCS) FOR THE SEPARATED AND DIVORCED VERSUS THE SEPARATED GROUP

TOTAL SCORES	SEPARATED & DIVORCED (N=38)		SEPARATED (N=12)		t-TEST
	X	S.D.	X	S.D.	
C-TOT*	8.3	5.2	12.4	4.5	-2.5, $p < .05$
N.S.-EXT.	14.4	4.3	15.8	5.0	-0.9, NS
N.S.-INT.	25.8	4.6	24.2	5.0	1.1, NS
KOSS	5.2	4.3	3.9	4.6	0.9, NS
TOPS	29.9	13.5	33.5	13.7	-0.8, NS
TOCS	62.1	15.6	59	16.0	0.6, NS

$P < .10$ = †

$P < .05$ = *

$P < .01$ = **

TABLE B-2

MEANS AND t-TESTS OF THE UNDERSTANDING OF DIVORCE (CSI) SUBSCALES FOR THE SEPARATED AND DIVORCED VERSUS THE SEPARATED GROUPS

CSI SUBSCALE SCORES	Separated & Divorced (N=38) X	S.D.	Separated (N=12) X	S.D.	t-Test
*Peer Ridicule & Avoidance (CPRA)	1.8	1.3	3.1	2.3	-2.3, p<.05
Paternal Blame (CPB)	2.1	1.9	1.6	1.3	0.9, NS
Fear of Abandonment (CFA)	.6	1.3	.9	1.0	-0.7, NS
Hopes of Reunification (CHR)	.6	1.3	.9	1.0	-0.7, NS
Maternal Blame (CMB)	.9	1.2	1.8	2.1	-1.7, NS
Self Blame (CSB)	1.6	1.3	1.7	1.2	-0.3, NS
*Total Understanding of Divorce (CTOT)	8.3	5.2	12.4	4.5	2.5, p<.05

P < .10 = †

P < .05 = *

P < .01 = **

TABLE B-3

MEANS AND t-TESTS OF THE TOTAL SCORES OF THE CSI (C-TOT), NSLCS (NS-EXT., NS-INT.) KASTAN-R (KOSS) AND T-CRS (TOPS AND TOCS) FOR THE GIRLS AND THE BOYS GROUPS

TOTAL SCORES	GIRLS (N=30) $\bar{X}$	S.D.	BOYS (N=20) $\bar{X}$	S.D.	t-TEST
C-TOT	9.3	5.9	9.3	4.7	0.02, NS
NOW-ST. EXT.	14.2	4.8	14.6	3.8	-0.4, NS
NOW-ST. INT.	25.8	4.8	25.7	4.2	0.1, NS
KOSS	4.8	3.8	4.8	4.0	-0.04, NS
TOPS	28.3	11.4	32.3	15.4	-1.4, NS
TOCS	64.9	15.5	61.6	18.1	0.9, NS

$P < .10 = \dagger$

$P < .05 = *$

$P < .01 = **$

TABLE B-4

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 1: CHILDRENS' UNDERSTANDING OF DIVORCE, AS MEASURED BY THE CSI (C-TOT) AND CLASSROOM PROBLEMS (TOPS) AND COMPETENCIES (TOCS), AS MEASURED BY THE T-CRS, FOR THE SEPARATION TIME AND SEX GROUPS

	C-TOT/TOPS	C-TOT/TOCS
Separaration Time		
Less than 2 years (N = 24)	.21	.31
More than 2 years (N = 26)	-.18	-.26
Sex		
Girls (N = 30)	.31†	-.29
Boys (N = 20)	.19	-.15

P < .10 = †

P < .05 = *

P < .01 = **

TABLE B-5

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 2: ATTRIBUTION STYLE, AS MEASURED BY THE NSLCS (N.S.-INT. + N.S.-EXT.) AND THE KASTAN-R (KOSS), AND CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR (TOPS & TOCS), AS MEASURED BY THE T-CRS, FOR THE SEPARATION TIME AND SEX GROUPS

	NS-INT/TOPS	NS-INT/TOCS	NS-EXT/TOPS	NS-EXT/TOCS	KOSS/TOPS	KOSS/TOCS
Separation Time						
Less than 2 years (N = 24)	-.16	.16	.16	-.16	.37+	-.18
More than 2 years (N = 26)	-.33+	.25	.39*	-.34+	.05	-.14
Sex						
Girls (N = 30)	-.24	.22	.24	-.22	.22	-.13
Boys (N = 20)	-.34	.30	.39+	-.37	.11	-.07

P < .10 = +

P < .05 = *

P < .01 = **

TABLE B-6

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 3: UNDERSTANDING OF DIVORCE, AS MEASURED BY THE CSI, (C-TOT) AND ATTRIBUTION STYLE, AS MEASURED BY THE NSLCS (NS-INT + NS-EXT) AND KASTAN-R (KOSS) FOR THE SEPARATION TIME AND SEX GROUPS

	C-TOT/NS-INT.	C-TOT/NS-EXT.	C-TOT/KOSS
Separation Time			
Less than 2 years (N=24)	-.29	.29	-.21
More than 2 years (N=26)	-.59**	.59**	.04
Sex			
Girls (N=30)	-.48**	.48**	-.20
Boys (N=20)	-.37	.33	.02

P < .10 = †

P < .05 = *

P < .01 = **

TABLE B-7

MEANS AND t-TESTS OF THE TOTAL SCORES OF THE CSI (C-TOT), NSLCS (NS-INT + NS-EXT), KASTAN-R (KOSS) AND T-CRS (TOPS AND TOCS) FOR TWO SEPARATION TIME GROUPS

TOTAL SCORES	< 2 YEARS (N=24) $\bar{X}$	S.D.	> 2 YEARS (N=26) $\bar{X}$	S.D.	t-TEST
CTOT*	11.1	5.6	7.7	4.2	2.4, p<.05
NS-EXT.	15.4	4.2	14.2	4.5	0.9, NS
NS-INT.	24.6	4.2	26.2	4.8	1.2, NS
KOSS	4.4	3.9	5.7	4.3	1.4, NS
TOPS	31.7	12.0	29.9	14.5	0.5, NS
TOCS	59.3	14.5	63.3	16.1	0.9, NS

P < .10 = †

P < .05 = *

P < .01 = **

TABLE B-8

MEANS AND t-TESTS OF THE UNDERSTANDING OF DIVORCE (CSI) SUBSCALES FOR TWO SEPARATION TIME GROUPS

CSI SUBSCALE SCORES	< 2 YEARS (N=24)		> 2 YEARS (N=26)		t-TEST
	X	S.D.	X	S.D.	
*Peer Ridicule & Avoidance (CPRA)	5.2	4.2	3.6	3.8	2.1, p<.05
Paternal Blame (CPB)	2.0	1.4	1.9	2.1	0.1, NS
Fear of Abandonment (CFA)	.9	1.5	.5	.8	1.3, NS
**Hopes of Reunification (CHR)	2.9	2.6	1.2	1.5	2.7, p<.01
Maternal Blame (CMB)	1.3	1.7	.9	1.4	.8, NS
Self Blame (CSB)	1.8	1.5	1.3	1.0	1.3, NS

P < .10 = †

P < .05 = *

P < .01 = **

TABLE B-9

FOLLOW-UP CORRELATIONS COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 1: UNDERSTANDING OF DIVORCE AND CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR, USING SUBSCALES OF THE CSI AND T-CRS FOR THE COD SAMPLE

T-CRS SUBSCALES	CPRA	CPB	CPA	CHR	CHB	CSB	CTOT	CSI SUBSCALES
TOPS	.22	-.05	.13	.16	.16	.03	.26	
TOCS	-.31†	.06	-.18	-.11	-.12	-.08	-.24	
TAO	.25	-.07	.20	.27	.24	.05	.32†	
TSA	.08	.14	-.07	-.09	-.06	-.07	-.03	
TLS	.19	.11	.14	.15	.15	-.04	.26	
TPT	-.27	-.00	-.22	-.24	-.10	-.03	-.24	
TAS	-.22	-.06	-.05	.09	-.05	-.05	-.10	
TTO	-.31†	-.06	-.21	-.13	-.17	-.13	-.29†	

N = 50

P < .05 = †

P < .01 = *

TABLE B-10

FOLLOW-UP CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 1: UNDERSTANDING OF DIVORCE AND CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR, USING SUBSCALES OF THE CSI AND THE T-CRS FOR THE GIRLS

T-CRS SUBSCALES	CPRA	CPB	CFA	CHR	CMB	CSB	CTOT	CSI SUBSCALES
TOPS	.31	.27	.09	.48*	-.01	-.10	.31	
TOCS	-.36†	-.17	-.19	-.24	-.06	.04	-.29	
TAO	.32	.10	.21	.59*	.11	-.02	.37†	
TSA	.08	.23	-.14	.19	-.22	-.22	.00	
TLS	.29	.28	.30	.34	-.03	-.03	.30	
TPT	-.28	-.15	-.21	-.46†	.02	.05	-.29	
TAS	-.25	-.15	-.06	.02	.01	.08	-.12	
TTO	-.40†	-.15	-.21	-.20	-.15	-.01	-.33*	

N = 30

P < .05 = †

P < .01 = *

TABLE B-11

FOLLOW-UP CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 1: UNDERSTANDING OF DIVORCE AND CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR, USING SUBSCALES OF THE CSI AND THE T-CRS FOR THE BOYS

T-CRS SUBSCALES	CPRA	CPB	CFA	CHR	CMB	CSB	C-TOT	CSI SUBSCALES
TOPS	.11	-.25	.34	-.08	.72*	.18	.19	
TOCS	-.22	.19	-.28	.06	-.46†	-.29	-.15	
TAO	.19	-.30	.35	.03	.75*	.11	.30	
TSA	.09	-.09	.15	-.37	.49†	.25	-.09	
TLS	.02	-.23	.34	-.03	.62*	.17	.18	
TPT	-.27	.26	-.36	-.04	-.56*	-.13	-.15	
TAS	-.18	.14	.04	.26	-.33	-.31	-.06	
TTO	-.14	.13	-.34	-.01	-.35	-.36	-.19	

N = 20

P < .05 = †

P < .01 = *

TABLE B-12

FOLLOW-UP CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 2: ATTRIBUTION STYLE AND CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR, USING SUBSCALES OF THE T-CRS, THE KASTAN-R, AND THE NSLCS FOR THE COD SAMPLE

T-CRS SUBSCALES	NS-INT.	NS-EXT.	KGIE	KGSU	KGGS	KBIE	KBSU	KBGS	KGC	KBC	KOSS	NSLCS & KASTAN-R SUBSCALES
TOPS	-.27	.30†	.17	.24	.02	-.24	.07	.20	.25	-.00	.17	
TOCS	.23	-.27	-.22	-.17	-.02	.25	-.08	-.20	-.20	.00	-.14	
TAO	-.20	.20	.07	.20	.05	-.05	.11	.34†	.20	.19	.01	
TSA	-.11	.18	.36†	-.03	-.08	-.34†	-.02	.00	.09	-.21	.19	
TLS	-.30†	.32†	.08	.32†	.03	-.25	.07	.11	.27	-.05	.21	
TPT	.15	-.16	-.19	-.17	.00	.19	-.05	-.30†	-.21	-.07	-.09	
TAS	.22	-.30†	-.34†	.03	.06	.20	-.01	-.05	-.14	-.09	-.15	
TTO	.23	-.26	-.08	-.22	.00	.27	-.13	-.17	-.19	-.01	-.12	

N = 50

P < .05 = †

P < .01 = *

TABLE B-13

FOLLOW-UP CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 2: ATTRIBUTION STYLE AND CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR, USING SUBSCALES OF THE T-CRS, THE KASTAN-R, AND THE NSLCS FOR THE BOYS

T-CRS SUBSCALES	NS-INT.	NS-EXT.	KGIE	KGSU	KGGS	KBIE	KBSU	KBGS	KGC	KBC	KOSS	NSLCS & KASTAN-R SUBSCALES
TOPS	.38	.04	.19	-.17	-.20	-.20	-.04	.09	.06	-.11	.11	
TOCS	.30	-.37	-.05	-.09	.15	.25	-.07	-.19	-.01	.03	-.08	
TAO	-.41	.42	.07	.18	-.21	-.23	-.05	.16	.05	-.10	.07	
TSA	-.11	.22	-.05	-.01	-.07	-.10	-.01	.07	.06	-.03	.04	
TLS	-.31	.34	.04	.25	-.16	-.18	-.03	.02	.11	-.12	.16	
TPT	.28	-.31	-.05	-.02	.13	.18	-.05	-.34	.02	-.08	.01	
TAS	.20	-.32	-.04	-.02	.17	.23	-.55	-.09	.05	.07	-.05	
TTO	.33	-.08	.04	-.18	.13	.28	-.07	-.11	-.08	.08	-.16	

N = 20

P < .05 = †

P < .01 = *

TABLE B-14

FOLLOW-UP CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 2: ATTRIBUTION STYLE AND CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR, USING SUBSCALES OF THE T-CRS, THE KASTAN-R, AND THE NSLCS FOR THE GIRLS

T-CRS SUBSCALES	NS-INT.	NS-EXT.	KGIE	KGSU	KGGS	KBIE	KBSU	KBGS	KGC	KBC	KOSS	NSLCS & KASTAN-R SUBSCALES
TOPS	-.24	.24	-.09	.32	-.03	-.44†	.24	.04	.18	-.10	.22	
TOCS	.22	-.22	-.01	-.34	.05	.30	-.26	-.20	-.23	-.07	-.13	
TAO	-.06	.06	-.13	.23	.04	-.27	.17	.10	.13	-.11	.11	
TSA	-.12	.12	.25	.10	-.03	-.20	.17	.02	.17	-.01	.15	
TLS	-.30	.30	-.22	.36	-.06	.48*	.20	-.01	.13	-.15	.22	
TPT	.08	-.08	-.01	-.36†	.04	.35	-.20	-.19	-.25	-.00	-.19	
TAS	.25	-.25	-.27	-.23	-.00	.07	-.19	-.19	-.29	-.15	-.10	
TTO	.21	-.21	.22	-.31	.09	.35	-.28	-.14	-.08	-.03	-.05	

N = 30

P < .05 = †

P < .01 = *

TABLE B-15

FOLLOW-UP CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 3: UNDERSTANDING OF DIVORCE AND ATTRIBUTION STYLE USING SUBSCALES OF THE NSLCS AND THE KASTAN-R, AND THE CSI FOR THE COD SAMPLE

CSI SUBSCALES	NS-INT.	NS-EXT.	KGIE	KGSU	KGGS	KBIE	KBSU	KBGS	KGC	KBC	KOSS
CPRA	-.37*	.42*	-.04	-.06	-.30†	-.10	.13	.27	-.19	.15	-.22
CPB	-.26	.25	.05	.14	-.11	-.14	-.02	-.05	.08	-.12	.13
CPA	-.34†	.33†	-.03	.19	-.21	.06	.13	.13	.03	.17	-.08
CHR	-.11	.08	-.09	.19	.09	-.02	.01	.11	.13	.04	.06
CHB	-.29†	.27	-.22	-.02	-.19	-.06	.18	.14	-.19	.14	-.22
CSB	-.27	.30†	-.00	-.11	-.30†	.07	-.04	.07	-.20	.04	-.16
CTOT	-.45*	.44*	-.08	.10	-.28†	-.05	.09	.19	-.08	.10	-.12

NSLCS & KASTAN-R SUBSCALES

N = 50

P < .05 = †

P < .01 = *

TABLE B-16

FOLLOW-UP CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 3: UNDERSTANDING OF DIVORCE AND ATTRIBUTION STYLE USING SUBSCALES OF THE NSLCS, AND THE KASTAN-R, AND THE CSI FOR THE GIRLS

CSI SUBSCALES	NS-INT.	NS-EXT.	KGIE	KGSU	KGGS	KBIE	KBSU	KBGS	KGC	KBC	KOSS	NCLCS & KASTAN-R SUBSCALES
CPRA	-.41†	.41†	-.03	.10	-.27	-.20	.44†	.26	-.08	.26	-.22	
CPB	-.35	.35	.10	.28	-.34	-.06	-.07	.00	.09	-.08	.11	
CPA	-.43†	.43†	-.09	.24	-.23	.01	.29	.18	.02	.25	-.15	
CHR	.13	-.13	-.33	.09	.33	-.25	.26	.11	.08	.07	.01	
CHB	-.23	.23	-.25	.03	-.24	-.05	.27	.11	-.22	.17	-.25	
CSB	-.40†	.40†	.01	-.09	-.39†	.11	.15	.03	-.26	.16	-.27	
CTOT	-.48*	.48*	-.16	.20	-.33	-.13	.37†	.20	-.09	.22	-.20	

N = 30

P < .05 = †

P < .01 = *

TABLE B-17

FOLLOW-UP CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR RESEARCH QUESTION 3: UNDERSTANDING OF DIVORCE AND ATTRIBUTION STYLE USING SUBSCALES OF THE NSLCS, THE KASTAN-R, AND THE CSI FOR THE BOYS

CSI SUBSCALES	NS-INT.	NS-EXT.	KGIE	KGSU	KGGS	KBIE	KBSU	KBGS	KGC	KBC	KOSS	NSLCS & KASTAN-R SUBSCALES
CPRA	-.30	.44	-.04	-.27	-.38	.05	-.30	.30	-.33	-.01	-.22	
CPB	-.04	-.03	-.02	-.07	.47†	-.26	.10	-.12	.11	-.16	.17	
CPA	-.08	-.01	.18	.18	-.18	.27	-.19	.08	.15	.08	.06	
CHR	-.37	.29	.04	.21	-.13	.06	-.26	.07	.11	-.09	.13	
CHB	-.54†	.51†	-.13	-.07	-.06	-.02	.10	.35	-.13	.22	-.22	
CSB	-.02	.06	-.04	-.18	-.10	-.01	-.35	.10	-.14	-.18	.00	
CTOT	-.37	.33	.07	-.07	-.16	.09	-.41	.19	-.07	-.11	.02	

N = 20

P < .05 = †

P < .01 = *

TABLE B-18

CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS FOR THE ATTRIBUTION STYLE MEASURES, USING SUBSCALES OF THE NSLCS AND THE KASTAN-R, FOR FOUR GROUPS: (1) COD SAMPLE, (2) BOYS, (3) GIRLS, AND (4) INTACT

NSLCS SUBSCALES		KASTAN-R SUBSCALES: KGIE	KGSU	KGGS	KBIE	KBSU	KBGS	KGC	KBC	KOSS
NS-INT.	(1)	-.01	-.17	.29*	.24+	-.14	-.23	.00	-.04	.03
	(2)	.06	-.05	.12	.31	-.12	-.23	.06	.04	.09
	(3)	.03	-.14	.45*	.23	-.23	-.03	.12	.00	.09
	(4)	.19	.06	.28	.26	-.31	.17	.27	.07	.29
NS-EXT.	(1)	.06	.16	-.37**	.31*	.12	.20	-.02	-.03	.00
	(2)	.02	.02	-.25	.44+	.07	.16	-.10	-.17	-.04
	(3)	-.03	.14	-.45*	-.23	.23	.03	-.12	-.00	-.09
	(4)	-.19	-.06	-.28	-.26	.31	-.17	-.27	-.07	-.29

(1) N = 50

(2) N = 20

(3) N = 30

(4) N = 27

P < .10 = +

P < .05 = *

P < .01 = **

TABLE B-19

MEANS AND t-TESTS OF THE TOTAL AND SUBSCALE SCORES OF THE T-CRS FOR THE INTACT GROUP VERSUS THE COD SAMPLE

	INTACT GROUP (N=40)		COD SAMPLE (N=50)		
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	t-TEST
TOTAL SCORES					
TOPS	29.4	13.6	30.8	13.5	0.5, NS
TOCS	65.8	18.0	61.4	15.6	1.2, NS
SUBSCALE SCORES					
TAO	20.9	6.5	19.8	5.6	0.8, NS
TSA	9.3	3.9	9.1	3.7	0.3, NS
TLS	11.0	7.3	11.9	7.0	-0.7, NS
TFT	22.8	5.6	21.1	5.7	1.3, NS
TAS	20.9	6.5	19.9	5.6	0.8, NS
TTO	22.1	7.7	20.3	6.4	1.2, NS

$P < .10 = \dagger$

$P < .05 = *$

TABLE B-20

MEANS AND t-TESTS OF THE TOTAL AND SUBSCALE SCORES OF THE ATTRIBUTION STYLE MEASURES (NSLCS AND KASTAN-R) FOR THE INTACT GROUP VERSUS THE COD SAMPLE

	INTACT GROUP (N=27)		COD SAMPLE (N=50)		t-TEST
	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	
NSLCS					
N.S.-EXT.	13.7	4.0	14.8	4.5	-1.1, NS
N.S.-INT.	26.3	25.4	4.0	4.7	0.9, NS
KASTAN-R					
KGIE	4.6	1.2	4.7	1.2	-0.4, NS
KGSU	3.9	1.9	3.7	2.1	0.5, NS
KGGS	4.3	1.3	3.8	1.2	1.7, NS
KBIE*	4.2	1.6	2.9	1.6	3.6, $p<.05$
KBSU	2.1	1.4	2.0	1.6	0.3, NS
KBGS	2.3	1.2	2.4	1.3	-0.3, NS
KGC	12.7	2.8	12.2	2.9	0.8 , NS
KBC*	8.6	2.8	7.3	2.7	2.0, $p<.05$
KOSS	4.7	2.9	4.9	4.4	-0.2, NS

$P < .05$ = *